



INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE  
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND PLANT DISEASES

INTERNATIONAL REVIEW  
OF THE SCIENCE  
AND PRACTICE OF AGRICULTURE

MONTHLY BULLETIN  
OF AGRICULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND PLANT DISEASES

YEAR VII. NUMBER 4  
APRIL, 1916



ROME  
PRINTING OFFICE OF THE INSTITUTE  
1916



quoting articles, please mention this BULLETIN.

## CONTENTS

### FIRST PART: ORIGINAL ARTICLES.

1. Coal Tick in Feeding Stage . . . . . 195-196

### SECOND PART: ABSTRACTS.

#### AGRICULTURAL INTELLIGENCE.

##### I. — GENERAL INFORMATION.

1. NITROGEN: Oil of Citronella as a Preventive of Mosquito Breeding . . . . . 197  
2. EDUCATION . . . . . 198 The first 10 years of the Moscow Higher School of Agriculture . . . . . 198

##### II. — CROPS AND CULTIVATION.

###### a) GENERAL

1. METEOROLOGY . . . . . 199 The "TETRA" Downcast.  
2. CHEMISTRY AND MICROBIOLOGY . . . . . 200 The Displacement of Potash and Phosphorus Contained in Certain Rocks by Some Substances Used as Fertilizers.  
3. SOIL CULTIVATION . . . . . 200 Improved Sowing Following.  
4. MANURING . . . . . 200 Green Manuring in India.

###### b) SPECIAL.

1. BOTANY, CHEMISTRY AND PHYSIOLOGY OF PLANTS . . . . . 201 Seeds and Plants of the United States . . . . . 201 Habitual Presence of a Microorganism in the Root of the . . . . . 201 Variations in Mineral Composition of Sap, Leaves and Stems of the . . . . . 201 Vine and the Maple Tree . . . . . 201 The Effect of Heating Seeds upon the Development of the Plant: Experiments made in Russia with Wheat . . . . . 202 Heavy Transpiration Days as Determined by Cyclic Environmental Factors . . . . . 203 Carbohydrate Transformation in Sweet Potatoes . . . . . 203



## V. — RURAL ECONOMICS.

1. Leasing and Share-cropping in Missouri, United States . . . 437. Laborer Income in United States . . . 438. Advantage of Diversity in Farming Operations in the Appalachia in Kansas, U. S. A. . . . 439. Cultivation of the Ramboulet as a Profitable Enterprise . . . 440. Cost of Running a Peach Orchard in N. Carolina, U. S. A. 441. Practical Balance for a Successful Dairy Farm in the United States . . . 442. Costs and Losses in the Dairy Business of Chemung County, New York . . . 443.

## VI. — AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES.

1. DEPENDENT ON PLANT PRODUCTS . . . 444. Method of Testing Musts . . . 444. The Effect of Rice and Its Mechanical and Chemical Effect upon the Grain . . . 445. The Utilization of the Residues of Oil Extraction from Olives . . . 446. A New Yeast Preparation for the Estimation of Crystallizable Sugar by Inversion . . . 447. Cold Extraction of Tartar from Grape Musts by Cambridge's Method . . . 448. Colon Clings due to Organisms in the Distillates of Plants and Flowers . . . 449.
2. DEPENDENT ON ANIMAL PRODUCTS . . . 449. Pasteurization of Milk in Modern Times . . . 450. Advantages of Using Milk of Low Bacterial Content in Satisfying the Demand for Lactic Fermentation . . . 451. Milk Quality as Determined by Moisture . . . 452. The Detection of Added Water in Milk in India . . . 453. The Chromogenic Reactions of Cheese and their Presence in the Italian "Raddiolo" . . . 454. Bacterial Milks . . . 455. Biochemical Comparisons between Marine Bacteria and Immature Dairy Products; Preserving, Packing, Transport, Trade . . . 456. Almond Growers' Trade in California . . . 457. Trade Standard for the Sale of Wine, Lard and Tallow . . . 458. The Sale of Eggs and Poultry in Massachusetts under Quarantine . . . 459.

## PLANT DISEASES.

## I. — DISEASES NOT DUE TO PARASITES OR OF UNKNOWN ORIGIN.

1. Influence of Meteorological Factors on the Development of Plant Diseases . . . 460. Yellowing of Sugar Beets in France, during 1911 . . . 461.

## II. — DISEASES DUE TO FUNGI, BACTERIA AND OTHER LOWER PLANTS.

## a. GENERAL.

1. 1918 . . . 462. Contribution to the Mycological Flora in the Neighborhood of Kiel . . . 463. Contribution to the Mycological Flora of the District of Tübingen (Germany) . . . 464. Contribution to the Mycological Flora of the District of Suhlheim (Russia) . . . 465. New Record of *Phytophthora Gelatinosa* in Austria . . . 466. Relation between the Concentration of Hydrogen Ions and the Natural Immunity of Plants . . . 467.
2. 1919. FRUITS . . . 468. Sugar Cane Resistant to Root-rot and Maize Resistant to Insect Attack in Cuba . . . 469.



## FIRST PART

# THE INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN FEEDING STUFFS.

*Review, No. 2*

*April 1, 1916*

Introduction (p. 165). — World's Production of Feeding Stuffs (p. 170).  
2. Trade of Various Countries in Feeding Stuffs (p. 187). — Prices of Feeding Stuffs.  
Bibliography (p. 300).

## INTRODUCTION.

In accordance with a resolution of the last General Assembly of the International Institute of Agriculture (1), we now publish the second *Review of the International Trade in Feeding Stuffs*. The preceding *Review*, published April 1, 1915, Vol. VI, No. 4 of this year contained a list of the available statistical data, for various countries, relating to concentrated feeding stuffs for live-stock. The object of this, as explained in the Introduction, was to serve as a basis for the elaboration of an international statistical survey of these products. Following the plan approved by the Permanent Committee of the Institute at the meeting on December 13, 1915, this *Review* now appears in form of systematic statistical tables, and constitutes a first attempt to fill a gap existing in our international agricultural statistics. These tables will contain statistical data relating to all such products for which data figures are forthcoming. Data concerning other products will be added as soon as their international movement acquires sufficient importance.



The products treated in this Review may be divided into the following categories:

- a) *Residues of Milling Industry;*
- b) *Oil*
- c) *Sugar*
- d) *Breeding and allied Industries.*
- e) *Animal Origin.*

For information concerning cereals and other direct agricultural produce, the reader is referred to the general statistics published in the *Bulletin international de Statistique agricole* and in the *Bulletin of Agricultural and Commercial Statistics*. At the same time, information is given where possible as to the relative quantity of these products utilised as concentrated foods for live stock. Further, a special table is devoted to the foreign trade of those countries for which sufficient statistical data are in existence.

The five categories mentioned above are dealt with under the following headings:

*Production.* The production of wheat and rye bran is taken to be the same as the production of wheat and rye. This is calculated on the basis of the quantities of cereals available for consumption by means of a coefficient giving results closely approximating to the actual facts. Next comes the production of rice residues, husks and bran, this also being calculated on the basis of gross quantities available by means of a further coefficient.

Following the above will be found data relating to residues from the extraction of oil seeds and fruits. In this case an attempt has been made for the first time, to establish the movement of the raw materials: exportation from the countries of origin and amounts available in the countries importing them; in this way the necessary elements are obtained for calculating, again by means of a coefficient, the production of cake in a particular country.

Another method, however, has been adopted for linseed cakes, in the case of which it has been possible to make a direct determination of the quantities available in the producing and exporting countries; similarly for cotton seed cakes, in the case of which the chief producing country—the U.S.A.—has established special statistics; and for rape cakes, where it has also been possible to calculate the production on the direct basis of the quantity of seed available.

The future development of this branch of our statistical work will be considerable, it is hoped, to compile eventually statistics dealing with the production of cake for two other important centres: India and Egypt.

The availability data which serve as the basis of our calculations when not already given among the elements of the present Review are taken from the *Annuaire international de Statistique agricole*, 1913 and 1914, or from the Monthly Bulletins of Agricultural and Commercial Statistics for the years 1915 and 1916, published by the Bureau of Statistics of the Institute.

*Foreign Trade of the Various Countries.*—Export and imports of

given in a series of ten tables for all those products which actually are said to be capable of serving as concentrated foods for live-stock.

We have classed together all those which, owing to similarity of origin or markets, are capable of homogeneous treatment.

The first item under this heading is a table giving the amount of food available in a number of cereal and pulse grains and roots, for which quantities available for live-stock consumption are known.

On account of the comparative disorganisation of the international market, we have been obliged, for the present, to restrict ourselves to the prices of the chief concentrates only in those markets which remained open for international trade.

These prices will present a view of comparative price levels of such commodities.

In conclusion, it should be remarked that, wherever possible, the figures relating to production and trade have been given for the last five years including 1915. The exceptions are formed by a certain number of recent countries and colonies, in the case of which the publication of figures has been delayed. The prices, on the other hand, are those of 1914 only and have been calculated on the basis of London exchange. In the present state of affairs it has been impossible to give those for the closing years.

*Bibliography.* A list of 280 references will provide the reader with information as to the progress made in the production and employment of concentrated and other similar foods for live-stock during the past years—they are taken from periodicals and other publications received by International Institute of Agriculture during the period March 31, 1916 to March 31, 1919.

## PRODUCTION OF CONCENTRATED FOODS FOR LIVESTOCK

## Cereals

As stated in the *Introduction*, the production of concentrates defined in the present Review has been calculated on the basis of the quantities of raw materials available for consumption by the aid of coefficients corresponding to conditions actually obtaining in the country.

$$\text{WHEAT} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{20}{100}$$

$$\text{PASTURE} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{32}{100}$$

- (c) Production of quantity owned  $(a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6)$  Imports  $(a_7)$  Exports

RICE PRODUCTS

$$\text{Production of quantity owned}$$

$$\text{HUSKS} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{20}{100}$$

$$\text{BRAN} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{10}{100}$$

- (d) Production of quantity owned  $(a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6)$  Imports of rice or husk  $(a_7)$  Exports of rice or husk

$$\text{Net production of quantity owned}$$

$$\text{HULL} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{20}{100}$$

$$\text{BRAN} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{10}{100}$$

- (e) Imports of rice or husk  $(a_7)$  Exports of rice or husk

$$\text{LINT-PASTURES} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{50}{100}$$

- (f) Production of quantity owned  $(a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6)$  Imports  $(a_7)$  Exports

COTTON CAKES. Except in the case of the United States, for which the coefficient of the available oil has been employed for calculating the output, the available quantity for the present comparison is 100. This variation is of different conditions of extraction.

$$\text{RAPE CAKES} = (a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6) \times \frac{50}{100}$$

- (g) Production of quantity owned  $(a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 + a_6)$  Imports  $(a_7)$  Exports

OTHER KINDS OF OIL CAKES. The production has been calculated on the basis of the quantity available of the raw material.

RESIDUES OF BEET-SUGAR INDUSTRY.

$$\text{Beet slices calculated on quantity of dry matter} = \text{Production} \times \frac{5}{100}$$

$$\text{Molasses} = \text{Production} \times \frac{17}{100}$$

## Residues of Milling Industry.

## PRODUCTION OF WHEAT BRAN

On basis of quantities of wheat available for consumption within the various countries.

| Quantities        | 1933        | 1934        | 1935        | 1936        | 1937        |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                   | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Canada            | 14,597.5    | 1501.348    | 1583.400    | 1111.111    | 1111.111    |
| United States     | 207,130     | 318,325     | 14,000      | 499,025     | 350,020     |
| Argentina         | 154,085     | 1,044,875   | 1,358,125   | 1,111,111   | 1,111,111   |
| Chile             | 5953.5      | 100,720     | 4,0025      | 111,111     | 111,111     |
| France            | 103,125     | 781,000     | 21,525      | 141,700     | 111,111     |
| Germany           | 100,075     | 110,270     | 128,328     | 10,370      | 111,111     |
| Italy             | 54,075      | 68,000      | 6,420       | 53,070      | 67,073      |
| Japan             | 234,000     | 184,500     | 437,500     | 208,000     | 230,321     |
| Poland            | 912,000     | 623,000     | 6,000,000   | 17,042      | 111,111     |
| Sweden            | 1,524,125   | 408,000     | 1,040,000   | 4,244,105   | 4,324,03    |
| Switzerland       | 8,084,070   | 4,200,825   | 2,318,225   | 2,400,044   | 1,843,227   |
| U.S.S.R.          | 181,007     | 113,048     | 180,068     | 111,111     | 1,7201      |
| Yugoslavia        | 28,527      | 11,000      | 3,004       | 14,200      | 50,400      |
| Other countries   | 1,040,125   | 1,750,000   | 1,700,025   | 1,720,048   | 1,602,422   |
| World production  | 215,500     | 2,000,504   | 2,000,500   | 2,000,000   | 68,205      |
| World consumption | 950,000     | 577,775     | 582,025     | 600,000     | 1,000,000   |
| Balance           | 1,820,881   | 1,600,000   | 1,400,000   | 1,600,000   | 2,000,000   |
| United Kingdom    | 15,025      | 1,000       | 32,220      | 33,725      | 111,111     |
| France            | 1,508,125   | 1,420,025   | 1,704,725   | 1,604,720   | 1,400,832   |
| Germany           | 175,117     | 182,050     | 200,700     | 162,440     | 111,111     |
| Italy             | 0,025       | 0,000       | 1,175       | 1,107,1     | 111,111     |
| Japan             | 140,050     | 1,000       | 1,000,050   | 128,118     | 180,230     |
| Sweden            | 71,075      | 111,111     | 111,111     | 111,111     | 111,111     |
| Switzerland       | 100,075     | 107,000     | 200,875     | 120,223     | 51,522      |
| U.S.S.R.          | 1,074,125   | 584,025     | 5,250,500   | 3,500,077   | 111,111     |
| Yugoslavia        | 94,000      | 80,800      | 10,125      | 111,111     | 111,111     |
| Other countries   | 131,600     | 1,38,000    | 151,225     | 131,240     | 111,111     |

In estimating the production of wheat bran in Germany, no allowance has been made for 3 per cent of the quantity of wheat available (the 3 per cent is normally used as a concentrated food for live stock), as this percentage is included within the limits of our calculation. (Cf. WAGNER, *Die Entwicklung der Futtermittelhandels in den letzten Jahren*, *Die Düngung und Futtermittel*, Jubiläumsausgabe, December 3 and 8, 1913.) For Italy, we have taken into consideration (for 1915) the calculations with regard to milling, imposing an 80 % flour with 20 % of offals.

With regard to the production of rye in Germany we have subtracted 10 % of the quantity available as this is the normal percentage of rye used as a concentrated food for live-stock (*Ibid.*).

#### PRODUCTION OF RYE BRAN

Calculated on basis of quantities of rye available for consumption.

| Country                            | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                    | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Germany.....                       | 2,700,342   | 2,894,717   | 3,045,710   | 3,110,000   |
| Austria-Hungary.....               | 1,112,685   | 1,202,272   | 1,136,090   | 1,110,000   |
| Belgium.....                       | 233,600     | 105,008     | 219,960     | 210,000     |
| Bulgaria.....                      | 35,781      | 38,146      | 47,724      | 40,000      |
| China.....                         | 224         | 1,056       | 1,088       | 800         |
| Denmark.....                       | 180,320     | 179,712     | 197,012     | 120,074     |
| Spain.....                         | 291,640     | 122,132     | 197,594     | 157,499     |
| United States.....                 | 249,462     | 256,128     | 249,190     | 435,371     |
| France.....                        | 358,912     | 368,042     | 373,472     | 397,118     |
| Australia.....                     | 992         | 140         | 704         | 1,000       |
| Canada.....                        | 19,320      | 18,770      | 16,992      | 13,294      |
| Italy.....                         | 38,580      | 39,774      | 43,260      | 38,111      |
| Norway.....                        | 13,357      | 64,820      | 68,189      | 54,280      |
| Netherlands.....                   | 211,094     | 198,106     | 208,096     | 161,792     |
| Roumania.....                      | .....       | 4,672       | 60,806      | 1,820       |
| Russian Empire and R. in Asia..... | 4,660,068   | 7,072,480   | 6,789,600   | 5,335,141   |
| Sweden.....                        | 183,135     | 198,074     | 167,098     | .....       |
| Switzerland.....                   | 19,776      | 18,652      | 18,130      | 15,000      |

TABLE 1  
 (a) *Production of feeding stuffs in the principal countries, 1924-1925*

| Country                        | 1924        |             | 1925        |             | 1926        |             | 1927        |             | 1928        |             | 1929        |             |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        |
|                                | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| <i>(i) Producing countries</i> |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Spain.....                     | 12 110      | 6 220       | 18 300      | 24 150      | 44 000      | 22 000      | 48 980      | 24 400      | 48 980      | 24 400      | .....       | .....       |
| United States.....             | 87 080      | 43 000      | 100 980     | 50 100      | 103 200     | 51 630      | 100 400     | 48 200      | 100 400     | 48 200      | 120 120     | 60 060      |
| British India.....             | 9 570 252   | .....       | 6 008 538   | .....       | 9 083 192   | .....       | 8 669 118   | .....       | 8 669 118   | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Italy.....                     | 103 026     | 31 513      | 95 674      | 17 837      | 113 310     | 50 670      | 118 380     | 50 190      | 118 380     | 50 190      | 110 360     | 55 182      |
| Japan.....                     | 180 220     | .....       | 172 001     | .....       | 2 140 634   | .....       | 1 905 806   | .....       | 1 905 806   | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Dutch East Indies.....         | 1 008 026   | .....       | 1 004 461   | .....       | 1 025 346   | .....       | 1 285 314   | .....       | 1 285 314   | .....       | .....       | .....       |

(ii) *Consumption of feeding stuffs*

| Country                        | 1924        |             | 1925        |             | 1926        |             | 1927        |             | 1928        |             | 1929        |             |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        | Hcks.       | Bus.        |
|                                | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| <i>(i) Consuming countries</i> |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Germany.....                   | 30 000      | 13 300      | 29 074      | 11 037      | 32 678      | 16 330      | 32 678      | 16 330      | 32 678      | 16 330      | .....       | .....       |
| Argentina.....                 | 5 400       | 1 700       | 2 900       | 1 180       | 3 520       | 1 760       | 2 320       | 1 160       | 2 320       | 1 160       | .....       | .....       |
| Austria, Hungary.....          | 22 380      | 11 160      | 16 200      | 5 100       | 17 018      | 8 500       | 17 018      | 8 500       | 17 018      | 8 500       | .....       | .....       |
| Belgium.....                   | 7 020       | 3 510       | 9 840       | 4 920       | 1 100       | 2 200       | 1 100       | .....       | 1 100       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Denmark.....                   | 68          | 34          | 62          | 31          | 1           | 06          | 06          | 06          | 06          | 06          | .....       | .....       |
| France.....                    | 15 080      | 7 540       | 11 656      | 5 828       | 9 450       | 4 725       | 7 880       | 3 940       | 7 880       | 3 940       | 12 100      | 6 050       |
| Algeria.....                   | 6           | 3           | 200         | 100         | 200         | 100         | 100         | 100         | 100         | 100         | 130         | 700         |
| United Kingdom.....            | 10 020      | 5 010       | 10 960      | 5 480       | 17 730      | 8 865       | 17 730      | 8 865       | 17 730      | 8 865       | .....       | .....       |
| Australia.....                 | 4 080       | 2 040       | 5 280       | 2 640       | 5 060       | 2 530       | 5 060       | 2 530       | 5 060       | 2 530       | .....       | .....       |
| Canada.....                    | 3 340       | 1 670       | 3 380       | 1 690       | 4 120       | 2 060       | 4 120       | 2 060       | 4 120       | 2 060       | .....       | .....       |
| Norway.....                    | 100         | 50          | 100         | 50          | 100         | 50          | 100         | 50          | 100         | 50          | .....       | .....       |
| Russia.....                    | 4 200       | 2 100       | 5 220       | 2 610       | 5 220       | 2 610       | 5 220       | 2 610       | 5 220       | 2 610       | .....       | .....       |
| Sweden.....                    | 2 000       | 1 000       | 2 000       | 1 000       | 2 000       | 1 000       | 2 000       | 1 000       | 2 000       | 1 000       | .....       | .....       |
| Switzerland.....               | 2 780       | 1 390       | 1 800       | 900         | 2 700       | 1 350       | 2 700       | 1 350       | 2 700       | 1 350       | .....       | .....       |

## Residues of Oil Industry.

## PRODUCTION OF LINSEED CAKES

calculated on quantities of seed in bbls/ct

| Country   | 1911    | 1912    | 1913    | 1914    |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| in the U.S. in the U.S. in the U.S. in the U.S. |         |         |         |         |
| in Pounds in Pounds in Pounds in Pounds         |         |         |         |         |
| Austria-Hungary.....                            | 21,894  | 27,504  | 36,670  | .....   |
| Belgium.....                                    | 14,200  | 11,725  | 36,765  | .....   |
| Bulgaria.....                                   | 193     | 77      | .....   | .....   |
| Chile.....                                      | 20      | 316     | 213     | .....   |
| United States.....                              | 257,368 | 569,297 | 237,194 | 231,672 |
| France.....                                     | 55,718  | 75,600  | 119,852 | 63,600  |
| Algeria.....                                    | 27      | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Canada.....                                     | 91,325  | 166,613 | .....   | .....   |
| British India.....                              | .....   | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Italy.....                                      | 23,583  | 24,410  | 27,170  | 18,911  |
| Japan.....                                      | 747     | .....   | .....   | .....   |
| Netherlands.....                                | 70,121  | 78,495  | 102,851 | 98,211  |
| Romania.....                                    | 4,215   | 6,848   | .....   | 17,000  |
| Russia in Europe.....                           | 77,115  | 94,262  | 145,560 | .....   |
| Sweden.....                                     | 10,135  | .....   | 11,115  | .....   |
| by Imports in Pounds                            |         |         |         |         |
| Colombia.....                                   | 135,000 | 102,150 | 278,100 | .....   |
| Denmark.....                                    | 4,150   | 5,800   | 9,000   | 11,800  |
| United Kingdom.....                             | 131,500 | 131,600 | 308,000 | 231,500 |
| Australia.....                                  | 750     | 1,100   | 1,718   | 2,480   |
| Norway.....                                     | 4,000   | 5,000   | 7,150   | 5,600   |

## Cottonseed.

PRODUCTION OF COTTONSEED CAKES AND MEAL,  
IN THE UNITED STATES (based on the crop yield).

| Products       | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915<br>(to Dec. 1) |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------------------|
|                | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons         |
| (in thousands) | 10,347,573  | 5,533,457   | 5,104,804   | 6,804,883   | .....               |
| Cottonseed:    |             |             |             |             |                     |
| Alabama        | 314,000     | 388,081     | 155,460     | 140,300     | .....               |
| Arkansas       | 220,210     | 2,673,000   | 283,130     | 40,851      | .....               |
| California     | 281,040     | 288,114     | 354,705     | 107,608     | .....               |
| Colorado       | 300,281     | 220,513     | 3,2044      | 23,041      | .....               |
| Florida        | 1,200       | 21,485      | 30,004      | 11,800      | .....               |
| Georgia        | 572,285     | 281,247     | 950,107     | 317,491     | .....               |
| Idaho          | 137,058     | 130,270     | 150,500     | 63,500      | .....               |
| Illinois       | 35,400      | 455,003     | 4,8097      | 102,177     | .....               |
| Indiana        | 20,338      | 25,200      | 20,235      | 8,551       | .....               |
| Iowa           | 308,046     | 373,148     | 41,402      | 445,312     | .....               |
| Kansas         | 440,446     | 245,463     | 252,131     | 82,115      | .....               |
| Kentucky       | 1,425,157   | 1,058,112   | 1,873,030   | 553,100     | .....               |
| Louisiana      | 37,43       | 55,000      | 70,008      | 10,053      | .....               |
| Maine          | 1,464,344   | 1,154,401   | 4,32,270    | 5,243,220   | (1,707,200)         |
| Maryland       | 1,051,350   | 1,813,463   | (1,800,017) | (2,100,542) | (1,877,200)         |

## EXPORTS OF COTTONSEED BY PRODUCING COUNTRIES.

| Countries                       | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                 | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Australia                       | 13,470      | 18,508      | 11,032      | 14,862      | (1)         |
| Belgium                         | 403,297     | 472,302     | 153,703     | 310,060     | 697,742     |
| Brazil                          | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Canada (excluding Newfoundland) | 5,098       | 20,007      | 10,008      | 7,414       | 2,804       |
| Czechoslovakia                  | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| France                          | 103,103     | 14,4230     | 218,007     | 120,520     | 67,072      |
| Germany (excluding March 31)    | 1,630       | 20,004      | 57,004      | (1)         | (1)         |
| Greece                          | 101,733     | 147,204     | 224,011     | .....       | .....       |
| Holland                         | 677,417     | 667,161     | 619,654     | (660,891)   | (137,678)   |

(1) not available.



## COTTONSEED TRADE OF IMPORTING COUNTRIES

| Countries        | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                  | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Germany:         |             |             |             |             |
| imports          | 155 785     | 214 097     | 219 797 (2) | 126 007     |
| exports          | 2 317       | 1 802       | 869 (2)     | 21          |
|                  | 153 468     | 212 295     | 218 928     | 125 986     |
| Austria-Hungary: |             |             |             |             |
| imports          | 5 802       | 11 233      | 3 513 (2)   | 2 000       |
| exports          | —           | 1 408       | 1255        | —           |
|                  | 5 802       | 9 825       | 2 358       | 2 000       |
| France:          |             |             |             |             |
| imports          | 31 555      | 31 935      | 17 679      | 14 712      |
| exports          | 267         | 141         | 925         | 708         |
|                  | 30 288      | 31 794      | 16 754      | 14 004      |
| United Kingdom:  |             |             |             |             |
| imports          | 60 170      | 63 905      | 62 032      | 76 122      |
| Japan:           |             |             |             |             |
| imports          | 11 894      | —           | 12 039      | 14 375 (1)  |

a) Figures not available. (1) First half year; (2) 11 months.

## PRODUCTION OF COTTONSEED CAKES IN IMPORTING COUNTRIES

calculated on quantities of seed available

| Countries       | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                 | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Germany         | 70 724      | 106 147     | 109 494     | 60 371      |
| Austria-Hungary | 2 001       | 4 867       | 1 279       | 1 018       |
| France          | 15 144      | 17 397      | 8 372       | 7 017       |
| United Kingdom  | 39 235      | 31 697      | 31 166      | 38 661      |
| Japan           | 5 947       | —           | 6 010       | 7 186       |

## PRODUCTION OF RAPE CAKES

(calculated on quantities of seed available).

| Countries                   | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                             | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| U.S.A. ....                 | 7 142       | 59 293      | 74 227      | 33 182      | .....       |
| Hungary ....                | 147 378     | 19 001      | 22 000      | 4 216       | .....       |
| France ....                 | 22 061      | 17 045      | 18 595      | 11 825      | .....       |
| Spain ....                  | 1 585       | 44 966      | 24 211      | 13 153      | .....       |
| Italy ....                  | 60 455      | 1 562       | 1 072       | 19          | 4 033       |
| Portugal and Ireland, ..... | 21 721      | 17 429      | 25 055      | 29 176      | 18 146      |
| India ....                  | 489 140     | 547 269     | 594 105     | 426 805     | .....       |
| .....                       | 3 351       | 1 664       | 5 001       | 10 988      | 2 254       |
| .....                       | 65 668      | 71 490      | 134 508     | 12 754      | 29 134      |
| .....                       | 203         | 128         | 482         | 255         | 226         |
| .....                       | 17 778      | 15 357      | 15 877      | 10 091      | 7 787       |
| .....                       | 580         | 723         | 457         | 94          | .....       |

## Ground-Nuts.

In the case of ground-nuts, figures are given both for whole pods and shelled seeds. As, however, the yield in cake must be based upon the figures of the latter, we have converted the figures for the whole pods to their equivalents in hulled seed by allowing a normal yield of 75 per cent.

In addition to the data for ground-nuts, systematic statistics are given for the first time relating to other oil seeds and fruits in the chief producing States. These products are daily growing in importance, not only in economy of various colonies but also in their capacity as the basal material of such important concentrates in modern feeding practice as the copra and palm-kernel cake. It is intended, later on, to treat of other similar products which are not yet of sufficient general importance such as mowrah, perilla etc.

## EXPORTATION OF GROUND-NUTS BY PRODUCING COUNTRIES

| Country                      | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                              | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| German colonies:             |             |             |             |             |
| Former German E. Africa      | 2 506       | 6 079       | (1)         | (1)         |
| China:                       |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     | 64 920      | 51 793      | 63 741      | 22 177      |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | 18 640      | 38 815      | 47 806      | 19 177      |
| hulled seeds                 |             |             | 5 293       | 68 272      |
|                              | 48 640      | 38 815      | (53 039)    | (23 500)    |
| Egypt*                       | 877         | 794         | 557         | 406         |
| French colonies:             |             |             |             |             |
| Senegal:                     |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     | 164 968     | 184 762     | (1)         | (1)         |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | 123 681     | 139 571     |             |             |
| Upper Senegal and Niger:     |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     | 5 111       | 1 761       | (1)         | (1)         |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | 3 833       | 1 321       |             |             |
| hulled seeds                 |             | 5 839       | (1)         | (1)         |
| French Guinea:               |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     | 1 056       | 2 029       | (1)         | (1)         |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | 792         | 1 515       |             |             |
| Mayotte and dependencies:    |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     | 34          | 34          | (1)         | (1)         |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | 25          | 25          |             |             |
| Indo China:                  |             |             |             |             |
| hulled seeds                 | 202         | 495         | (1)         | (1)         |
| French possessions in India: |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     | 10          | 9           |             |             |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | 7           | 7           |             |             |
| hulled seeds                 | 76          | 213         |             |             |
|                              | 128 616     | 134 057     |             |             |
| British colonies:            |             |             |             |             |
| India                        | 204 249     | 221 679     | 259 158     | 266 030     |
| Gambia                       | 48 700      | 65 109      | 68 486      |             |
| Nigeria:                     |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     | 890         | 1 743       | (1)         | (1)         |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | 667         | 1 307       |             |             |
| hulled seeds                 | 1 198       | 2 559       | (1)         | (1)         |
|                              | 251 805     | 290 741     | (327 644)   | (266 030)   |
| Japan                        | 1 679       | 3 019       | 5 928       | 5 240       |
| Dutch colonies:              |             |             |             |             |
| East Indies:                 |             |             |             |             |
| in hulls                     |             | 3 266       | 13 793      | 9 974       |
| equivalent in hulled seeds   | (1)         | 2 419       | 10 345      | 7 459       |
| hulled seeds                 | (1)         | 9 940       | 6 268       | 7 055       |
|                              |             | 12 359      | 16 613      | 15 135      |
| Portuguese colonies:         |             |             |             |             |
| Portuguese S. E. Africa      | (1)         | 5 113       | (1)         | (1)         |
|                              | (440 173)   | (491 910)   | (493 811)   | (310 061)   |

\* Exported for direct consumption. — (1) Figures not available. — (2) 11 months.

## GROUND-NUT TRADE OF IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

| Countries             | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|-----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                       | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| France.....           | 44 534      | 60 860      | 68 685 (2)  | 83 040      | (1)         |
| Italy.....            | 2 074       | 1 188       | 3 600 (2)   | 2 418       | (1)         |
| Spain.....            |             |             |             |             |             |
| seeds; (years ending) |             |             |             |             |             |
| 1911.....             | 7 844       | 5 865       | 5 571       | 7 025       | 6 500       |
| 1912.....             | 5 863       | 4 390       | 4 178       | 5 941       | 4 917       |
| 1913.....             |             | 1 102       | 3 085       | 12 282      | 4 371       |
| 1914.....             | 5 883       | 5 501       | 7 203       | 18 220      | 9 321       |
| U.S.A.....            |             |             |             |             |             |
| 1911.....             | 216 770     | 222 480     | 255 713     | 270 191     | 255 713     |
| 1912.....             | 162 577     | 166 785     | 161 785     | 202 013     | 161 785     |
| 1913.....             | 178 370     | 215 230     | 217 754     | 260 811     | 247 754     |
| 1914.....             | 340 050     | 412 021     | 420 530     | 472 150     | 420 530     |
| U.K.....              |             |             |             |             |             |
| 1911.....             | 15 737      | 13 644      | 16 999      | 12 641      | 8 015       |
| 1912.....             | 11 353      | 10 233      | 12 710      | 9 475       | 6 011       |
| 1913.....             | 1 358       | 5 005       | 2 102       | 1 000       | 3 015       |
| 1914.....             | 15 711      | 15 808      | 14 941      | 11 381      | 9 620       |
| 1915.....             | 325 245     | 390 123     | 414 508     | 461 075     | 410 013     |
| Germany.....          |             |             |             |             |             |
| 1911.....             | 47 582      | 52 170      | 67 128      | 64 167      | 47 416      |
| 1912.....             | 12 602      | 12 704      | 10 610      | 21 700      | 6 548       |
| 1913.....             | 51 820      | 30 383      | 17 812      | 42 467      | 40 868      |

(1) not available; — (2) 1st half-year.

## PRODUCTION OF GROUND-NUT CAKES IN IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

(calculated on quantities available for consumption).

| Countries    | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|              | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| France.....  | 22 267      | 34 934      | 49 012      | 41 970      | .....       |
| Italy.....   | 1 037       | 594         | 1 833       | 1 200       | .....       |
| U.S.A.....   | 2 941       | 2 795       | 3 631       | 9 113       | 4 660       |
| U.K.....     | 162 622     | 198 061     | 207 299     | 239 537     | 200 956     |
| Germany..... | 17 410      | 19 692      | 23 906      | 21 233      | 20 434      |

## Sesame.

## EXPORTATION OF SESAME BY PRODUCING COUNTRIES

| Countries  | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|  | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| German colonies:                                 |             |             |             |             |
| Former German E. Africa.....                     | 1 514       | 1 881       | (1)         | (1)         |
| China.....                                       | 125 324     | 120 892     | 123 601     | 75 638      |
| Ottoman Empire * .....                           | 18 492      | 12 192      | (1)         | (1)         |
| French colonies:                                 |             |             |             |             |
| Upper Senegal and Niger.....                     | 12          | 7           | (1)         | (1)         |
| French Guinea.....                               | 564         | 411         | (1)         | (1)         |
| Indo China.....                                  | 1 030       | 894         | (1)         | (1)         |
|  | 1 606       | 1 312       | (1)         | (1)         |
| British possessions:                             |             |             |             |             |
| India.....                                       | 136 313     | 62 360      | 101 069     | 100 049     |
| Sudan.....                                       | 4 935       | 6 094       | 6 839       | (1)         |
| British E. Africa (year ending<br>March 31)..... | 2 060       | 3 191       | 1 688       | 3 871       |
| Uganda (year ending March 31).....               | 538         | 709         | 1 596       | 910         |
| Nigeria.....                                     | 469         | 448         | 1 055       | (1)         |
| Sierra Leone.....                                | 112         | 46          | 36          | (1)         |
|  | 144 427     | 73 151      | 117 683     | 105 721     |
| Portuguese colonies:                             |             |             |             |             |
| Portuguese E. Africa.....                        | (1)         | 1 330       | (1)         | (1)         |
|  | (1)         | 1 330       | (1)         | (1)         |
| Dutch colonies:                                  |             |             |             |             |
| Dutch E. Indies.....                             | (1)         | 1 302       | 1 987       | 2 445       |
|  | (146 033)   | 77 095      | (118 670)   | (108 160)   |

\* The figure for 1911 refers to the year ending March 13; that for 1912 to the exports from the ports of Hanta, Gafu, Mersina, Adalia, Ayas and Smyrna. — (1) Figures not available.

## SESAME TRADE OF PRODUCING COUNTRIES.

| Countries  | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|            | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| India      | 101 072     | 90 282      | 110 030 (2) | 88 237      | (1)         |
| Hungary    | 42 200      | 31 414      | 26 620 (2)  | 17 180      | (1)         |
| Yugoslavia | 24          | 4           | 455 (2)     | 1           | (1)         |
|            | 42 176      | 31 410      | 26 174      | 17 188      | --          |
| Yugoslavia | 6 307       | 2 544       | 4 018 (2)   | 4 300       | (1)         |
| Yugoslavia | 98 373      | 10 011      | 20 586      | 21 075      | 15 874      |
| Yugoslavia | 2 660       | 1 114       | 925         | 708         | 1 055       |
|            | 95 704      | 18 107      | 19 601      | 29 061      | 13 010      |
| Portugal   | 40 870      | 25 358      | 24 771      | 28 804 (1)  | 32 645      |
| Portugal   | 19          | 27          | 16          | 20          | 12          |
|            | 40 857      | 25 331      | 24 758      | 28 837      | 32 633      |
| Portugal   | 4 774       | 5 970       | 5 955       | 6 741 (4)   | 9 717       |
| Portugal   | 3 878       | 3 900       |             |             |             |

\* Some and Ground-nuts. -- (1) Figures not available -- (2) 1st half year. (3) 10 months. (4) 1914.

PRODUCTION OF SESAME CAKE IN IMPORTING COUNTRIES.  
(calculated on quantities available for consumption).

| Countries  | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|            | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Italy      | 50 836      | 40 641      | 58 019      | 44 118      |             |
| Hungary    | 21 088      | 15 705      | 13 087      | 5 594       |             |
| Yugoslavia | 3 198       | 1 272       | 2 009       | 2 198       |             |
| Yugoslavia | 47 852      | 9 098       | 9 830       | 10 483      | 6 959       |
| Yugoslavia | 20 428      | 12 665      | 12 379      | 14 418      | 16 316      |
| Yugoslavia | 2 387       | 2 985       | 2 977       | 3 372       | 4 558       |
| Yugoslavia | 1 939       | 1 999       |             |             |             |

## Copra.

## EXPORTATION OF COPRA BY PRODUCING COUNTRIES

| Countries                            | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                      | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| German colonies:                     |             |             |             |             |
| Former German E. Africa...           | 5 421       | 4 212       | (1)         | (1)         |
| Togoland...                          | 189         | 163         | (1)         | (1)         |
| New Guinea and dependencies          | 11 523      | 17 394      | (1)         | (1)         |
| Samoa...                             | 10 237      | 11 201      | (1)         | (1)         |
|                                      | 37 370      | 32 967      |             |             |
| United States, Philippines...        | 135 573     | 141 200     | 76 000      | (1)         |
| French colonies:                     |             |             |             |             |
| Ivory Coast...                       | 22          | 22          | (1)         | (1)         |
| Dahomey and dependencies...          | 336         | 304         | (1)         | (1)         |
| Indo China...                        |             | 1           | (1)         | (1)         |
| Indo China...                        | 7 539       | 7 982       | (1)         | (1)         |
| New Caledonia and dependencies       | 2 561       | 2 836       | (1)         | (1)         |
| French possessions in Oceania...     | 8 683       | 6 113       | (1)         | (1)         |
|                                      | 19 175      | 17 275      |             |             |
| British possessions:                 |             |             |             |             |
| India (year ending March (1))...     |             | 32 387      | 31 991      | 35 804      |
| Ceylon...                            | 41 750      | 31 197      | 59 555      |             |
| Federated Malay States...            | 8 181       | 7 834       | 9 439       | 14 732      |
| British Borneo...                    | 537         | 509         | 655         | (1)         |
| Sarawak...                           | 199         | 193         | 71          | (1)         |
| Seychelles...                        | 2 590       | 2 735       | 2 081       | 3 071       |
| Mauritius...                         | 2           | 8           | 99          | (1)         |
| Tonga...                             | 12 023      | 11 298      | 3 481       | (1)         |
| Fiji...                              | 19 599      | 13 930      | 8 056       | (1)         |
| Brit. N. India (year end Mar. (1))   | 1 077       | 1 009       | 807         | 1 220       |
| Solomon Isles (British)...           | 205         | 182         | 213         | 203         |
| Gilbert and Ellice Islands...        | 2 193       | (1)         | (1)         | (1)         |
| Brit. V. Afr. (year ending Mar. (1)) | 1 874       | 1 611       | 1 589       | 1 612       |
| Zanzibar...                          | 11 591      | 9 182       | 9 603       | 10 138      |
| East Coast...                        | 792         | 630         | 649         | (1)         |
| Nigeria...                           | 98          | 90          | 98          | (1)         |
| Trinidad...                          | 734         | 1 433       | 544         | (1)         |
| Jamaica...                           | 8           | 21          | 32          | (1)         |
| British Guiana...                    | (1)         | 58          | 57          | (1)         |
|                                      | 101 090     | 114 580     | 132 861     | 179 172     |
| Dutch colonies:                      |             |             |             |             |
| Java...                              | 91 022      | 81 650      | 78 800      | 70 227      |
| Malacca...                           | 38 064      | 37 822      | 29 579      |             |
| Singie, Menado, Gorontalo...         | 33 914      | 30 070      | 26 648      | 172 847     |
| Peking...                            | 14 383      | 17 351      | 17 617      |             |
|                                      | 178 883     | 169 890     | 152 635     | 243 691     |
| Portuguese colonies:                 |             |             |             |             |
| Portuguese E. Africa...              | 4 004       | (1)         | (1)         | (1)         |
|                                      | 1472 1019   | 1475 8611   | 1361 4361   | 170 142     |

(1) Figures not available; (2) 1st half year.

COPRA TRADE OF IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

| Countries  | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|  | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Algeria  | 148 090     | 183 258     | 190 440 (1) | 82 956      | (1)         |
| Belgium  | 1 332       | 981         | 540 (2)     | 573         | (1)         |
|  | 146 734     | 182 277     | 190 980     | 82 383      | .....       |
| Canada:  |             |             |             |             |             |
| Quebec   | 48 212      | 45 537      | 33 305 (2)  | 11 882      | (1)         |
| Ontario  | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | (1)         |
|  | 48 212      | 45 537      | 33 305      | 11 882      | .....       |
| France   | 21 778      | 25 774      | 10 552 (1)  | 11 118      | (1)         |
| Germany  | 6 744       | 7 170       | 6 957 (2)   | 4 707       | (1)         |
|  | 15 031      | 18 604      | 12 509      | 6 411       | .....       |
| Italy  | 25 005      | 21 595      | 31 141      | 13 690      | (1)         |
| Japan (year ending June 30)<br>total for consumption | 17 153      | 31 797      | 18 647      | 25 266      | 13 686      |
| Malaya   | 167 392     | 153 506     | 112 610     | 96 303      | 131 471     |
| .....  | 17          | 92          | 312         | 68          | (69)        |
|  | 167 345     | 153 414     | 112 328     | 96 295      | 131 618     |
| Netherlands<br>Kingdom                               | (3)         | (3)         | 14 442      | 12 847      | (3)         |
| Spain  | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Sweden   | 2 527       | 2 068       | 2 558       | 3 048 (4)   | 3 970       |
| Switzerland  | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| U.S.A.   | 91 730      | 102 230     | 100 635     | 100 420     | 210 288     |
| .....  | 78 014      | 78 350      | 82 356      | 77 168      | 166 815     |
|  | 13 716      | 23 880      | 18 279      | 32 312      | 103 443     |
| U.S.S.R.   | 73 162      | 63 096      | .....       | .....       | .....       |

(1) Not available. — (2) 1st half year. — (3) Not specified. — (4) 11 months.



## PRODUCTION OF COPRA CAKE IN IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

(calculated on quantities available for consumption within the various countries.)

| Countries       | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                 | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Germany         | 73 367      | 91 138      | 97 950      | 41 191      |
| Austria-Hungary | 24 106      | 22 765      | 16 652      | 7 431       |
| Belgium         | 7 517       | 9 302       | 6 297       | 3 205       |
| Denmark         | 12 502      | 12 272      | 15 572      | 6 845       |
| United States   | 8 570       | 15 853      | 9 323       | 12 033      |
| France          | 83 672      | 76 707      | 56 164      | 48 147      |
| United Kingdom  |             |             | 7 216       | 21 418      |
| Japan           | 1 263       | 1 454       | 1 279       | 1 511       |
| Netherlands     | 6 858       | 11 940      | 9 139       | 16 136      |
| Russia          | 36 581      | 31 953      |             |             |

## Oil-palm.

## EXPORTATION OF PALM KERNELS BY PRODUCING COUNTRIES.

| Countries               | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                         | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| German colonies:        |             |             |             |             |
| Cameroon                | 15 171      | 15 990      | (1)         | (1)         |
| Togoland                | 13 287      | 11 630      | (1)         | (1)         |
| French colonies:        |             |             |             |             |
| Senegal                 | 1 327       | 1 764       | (1)         | (1)         |
| Upper Senegal and Niger | 243         | 847         | (1)         | (1)         |
| French Guinea           | 1 826       | 5 135       | (1)         | (1)         |
| Ivory Coast             | 5 253       | 9 799       | (1)         | (1)         |
| Dahomey and dep.        | 39 346      | 37 296      | (1)         | (1)         |
| Gaboon                  | 495         | 380         | (1)         | (1)         |
| Dutch China             | 8           | 42          | (1)         | (1)         |
| British possessions:    |             |             |             |             |
| Nigeria                 | 179 220     | 187 587     | 177 524     | 165 955     |
| Sierra Leone            | 43 580      | 515 740     | 49 991      | (1)         |
| Gold Coast              | 13 467      | 14 864      | 9 899       | (1)         |
| Gambia                  | 450         | 452         | 551         | (1)         |
|                         | 236 717     | 718 643     | 237 968     | (165 955)   |
|                         | 316 671     | 798 523     | 237 968     | (165 955)   |

(\*) Kernels of *Behn-o-pehman*. — (1) Figures not available.

## TRADE IN PALM KERNELS OF IMPORTING COUNTRIES.

| Countries   | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Belgium     | 250 664     | 201 408     | 235 917 (2) | 113 205     | (1)         |
| Belgium     | (1)         | (1)         | (3)         | (3)         |             |
| Hungary     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 30 040      | 30 900      | 27 043 (2)  | 1 127       | (1)         |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| France      |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 4 205       | 0 402       | 4 205 (2)   | 2 202       | (1)         |
| Belgium     | 790         | 595         | 790 (2)     | 698         | (1)         |
| Belgium     | 3 475       | 5 837       | 3 475       | 1 504       |             |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 1 495       | 1 773       | 595 (2)     | 406         | (1)         |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 1 088       | 1 077       | 2 080       | 3 135       | 18 403      |
| Belgium     | 10          | 40          | 12          | 7           | 4           |
| Belgium     | 1 078       | 2 037       | 2 074       | 3 128       | 18 439      |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | (3)         | (3)         | (3)         | 66 605      | (1)         |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 204         | 251         | 110         | 343         | (1) 519     |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 12 845      | 50 803      | 03 711      | 50 187      | 25 829      |
| Belgium     | 43 110      | 48 139      | 57 504      | 35 531      | 83          |
| Belgium     | — 271       | 8 124       | 6 118       | 20 051      | 25 740      |

\* *Belgium, Siam and Laos*.—(1) Figures not available. — (2) 1st half year. — (3) Not specified months.

PRODUCTION OF PALM KERNEL CAKES IN IMPORTING COUNTRIES  
(calculated on quantities available for consumption)

| Countries   | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Belgium     | 125 332     | 130 791     | 117 955     | 56 602      |             |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Hungary     | 15 020      | 19 953      | 13 521      | 564         |             |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 1 737       | 2 918       | 1 547       | 782         |             |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 747         | 886         | 207         | 203         |             |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     | 980         | 1 018       | 1 487       | 1 564       | 9 229       |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     |             |             |             | 33 332      | —           |
| Belgium     | 102         | 127         | 55          | 171         | 259         |
| Belgium     |             |             |             |             |             |
| Belgium     |             | 4 212       | 3 074       | 19 326      | 12 873      |

**Residues of Sugar Industry.  
PRODUCTION OF BEET RESIDUES.**

| COUNTRY                | 1941        | 1942        | 1943        | 1944        |
|------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                        | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| <i>a) Dried slices</i> |             |             |             |             |
| Germany                | 153 030     | 832 110     | 847 000     | 815 941     |
| Austria                | 212 490     | 396 190     | 348 400     | 338 740     |
| Hungary                | 449 380     | 244 085     | 243 250     | 260 711     |
| Belgium                | 75 435      | 86 515      | 60 595      | 61 111      |
| Bulgaria               | 4 260       | 3 065       | 4 250       | 45 000      |
| Denmark                | 39 545      | 49 300      | 49 500      | 48 361      |
| Spain                  | 59 590      | 39 590      | 50 100      | 50 100      |
| United States          | 220 625     | 236 005     | 256 000     | 233 840     |
| France                 | 211 700     | 361 105     | 391 595     | 481 555     |
| Australia              | 410         | 205         | 320         | 380         |
| Canada                 | 7 040       | 9 115       | 9 745       | 4 924       |
| Italy                  | 79 220      | 87 150      | 156 500     | 67 500      |
| Netherlands            | 100 250     | 108 805     | 84 205      | 90 711      |
| Romania                | 13 155      | 14 640      | 14 120      | 11 250      |
| Russia in Europe       | 677 220     | 536 200     | 617 585     | 617 585     |
| Asia                   | 170         | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Serbia                 | 4 525       | 7 590       | .....       | .....       |
| Sweden                 | 18 275      | 42 325      | 42 200      | 43 805      |
| Switzerland            | 1 155       | .....       | 1 580       | 1 350       |
| <i>b) Molasses</i>     |             |             |             |             |
| Germany                | 181 212     | 332 844     | 338 800     | 348 370     |
| Austria                | 84 990      | 158 470     | 130 240     | 135 490     |
| Hungary                | 59 752      | 66 704      | 67 300      | 80 280      |
| Belgium                | 30 134      | 34 600      | 27 835      | .....       |
| Bulgaria               | 1 304       | 1 226       | 1 700       | 6 000       |
| Denmark                | 14 010      | 10 720      | 18 600      | 10 340      |
| Spain                  | 15 830      | 15 830      | 23 040      | .....       |
| United States          | 91 850      | 94 700      | 102 076     | 100 332     |
| France                 | 84 716      | 144 442     | 120 602     | 75 022      |
| Australia              | 124         | 82          | 128         | 152         |
| Canada                 | 3 170       | 5 640       | 2 686       | 1 070       |
| Italy                  | 31 688      | 34 800      | 54 000      | 27 000      |
| Netherlands            | 40 100      | 45 522      | 34 390      | 30 884      |
| Romania                | 5 262       | 5 841       | 5 648       | 45 000      |
| Russia in Europe       | 270 888     | 214 480     | 244 934     | 244 934     |
| Asia                   | 188         | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Serbia                 | 1 834       | 3 000       | .....       | .....       |
| Sweden                 | 16 310      | 16 030      | 16 004      | 17 540      |
| Switzerland            | 402         | .....       | 652         | 540         |

## FOREIGN TRADE OF VARIOUS COUNTRIES

| Country   | Imports   |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
|---|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|------|--------|--------|-----------|-------|------|
|   | 1911      | 1912      | 1913       | 1914       | 1915 | 1916   | 1917   | 1918      | 1919  | 1920 |
| metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons, metric tons |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Germany:  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Barley  | 5,177,980 | 2,750,025 | 3,087,097  | 11,600,495 | (2)  | 1,554  | 1,157  | 6,018 (1) | 2,216 | (2)  |
| Beans   | 24,800    | 25,395    | 15,200 (2) | 7,010      | (2)  | 200    | 170    | 872 (1)   | 495   | (2)  |
| Lupins  | 17,013    | 11,280    | 6,080 (1)  | 8,557      | (2)  | 836    | 475    | 727 (1)   | 637   | (2)  |
| Vetches   | 21,027    | 23,181    | 15,265 (1) | 12,000     | (2)  | 1,227  | 1,295  | 924 (1)   | 473   | (2)  |
| Austria-Hungary:  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Vetches   | 5,738     | 6,167     | 595 (1)    | 2,702      | (2)  | 512    | 3748   | 2,306 (1) | 196   | (2)  |
| Belgium:  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Seeds and tharmon food  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Barley, other than  | 2,627     | 1,601     | 1,341 (1)  | 511        | (2)  | 512    | 3748   | 2,306 (1) | 606   | (2)  |
| French colonies:  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| India-China:  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Dutch Indies:   |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Netherlands:  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Wheat   | 15,014    | 17,005    | 21,016     | (2)        | (2)  | 12,505 | 11,001 | 17,398    | (2)   | (2)  |
| Rye   | 7,100     | 5,575     | 6,551      | (2)        | (2)  | 1,073  | 2,802  | 3,895     | (2)   | (2)  |
| Barley  | 11,260    | 8,368     | 11,157     | (2)        | (2)  | 8,410  | 6,320  | 7,597     | (2)   | (2)  |
| Blackwheat  | 221       | 250       | 250        | (2)        | (2)  | 77     | 50     | 676       | (2)   | (2)  |
| Beans and vetches   | 112       | 280       | 2          | (2)        | (2)  | 301    | 272    | 6         | (2)   | (2)  |
| Dutch colonies:   |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Dutch E. Indies:  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| Dried roots   |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
| and residues of malt &  |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |
|   |           |           |            |            |      |        |        |           |       |      |

(1) 1st half only; (2) figures not available.

**Residues of Milling Industry.**  
**FOREIGN TRADE IN BRAN (wheat, etc.).**

| Country.                   | Imports     |             |               |             |             | Exports     |             |             |             |             |
|----------------------------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                            | 1911        | 1912        | 1913          | 1914        | 1915        | 1921        | 1922        | 1923        | 1924        | 1925        |
|                            | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons   | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Germany.....               | 1 420 717   | 1 606 250   | 1 414 236 (3) | 1 010 703   | (2)         | 176 122     | 16 768      | 23 284 (1)  | 13 139      | (2)         |
| Argentina.....             | 439 281     | 117 882     | 110 924 (1)   | 66 331      | (2)         | 211 034     | 325 220     | 271 028     | 231 041     | 145 449     |
| Austria-Hungary.....       | 72 015      | 55 776      | 73 174 (1)    | 45 843      | (2)         | 60 415      | 37 183      | 40 501 (1)  | 23 680      | (2)         |
| Belgium.....               | 89 198      | 59 368      | 127 561       | 106 815     | .....       | 31 220      | 42 068      | 22 058 (1)  | 16 501      | .....       |
| China.....                 | 43 576      | 55 277      | 45 221 (1)    | 21 305      | (2)         | 34 555      | 45 137      | 62 189      | 25 863      | .....       |
| Denmark.....               | 15          | 1 555       | 5 209         | 68          | 8           | 2 783       | 3 094       | 215         | 400         | 1 301       |
| United States.....         | 157 189     | 171 688     | 211 031       | 201 852     | 16 115      | 109 713     | 83 290      | 4 670       | 5 281       | .....       |
| France.....                | 201 801     | 209 674     | 232 066       | 218 472     | 110 030     | 33 245      | 36 888      | 35 549      | 11 478      | 9 851       |
| Algeria.....               | 3           | 2 018       | 424           | .....       | .....       | 19 303      | 14 051      | 19 935      | 14 116      | 9 128       |
| Tunis.....                 | .....       | .....       | .....         | .....       | .....       | 1 768       | 2 586       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| United Kingdom.....        | .....       | .....       | .....         | .....       | .....       | 163 710     | 317 121     | 102 018     | 84 118      | 2 679       |
| Australia.....             | .....       | .....       | .....         | .....       | .....       | 9 707       | 6 706       | 12 222      | .....       | .....       |
| Canada (year end, Mar. 31) | .....       | .....       | .....         | .....       | .....       | 95 106      | 81 077      | 84 450      | 105 552     | 52 730      |
| British India.....         | 3 458       | 2 761       | 3 850         | 2 582       | 2 673       | 203 014     | 214 201     | 214 250     | 193 326     | 100 351     |
| Italy.....                 | 15 135      | 9 177       | 10 018        | 4 287 (3)   | 3 449       | 17 026      | 28 155      | 31 823      | 37 275 (3)  | 5 337       |
| Japan.....                 | .....       | 28 184      | 30 558        | 14 989      | 18 450      | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Norway.....                | .....       | .....       | .....         | .....       | .....       | 36 251      | 21 256      | 15 975      | 10 692      | 40          |
| Netherlands.....           | 90 695      | 49 646      | 13 826 (2)    | 9 045       | (2)         | 56 303      | 66 575      | 63 937      | (2)         | .....       |
| Dutch India.....           | .....       | 7 177       | 7 172         | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Russia.....                | .....       | .....       | .....         | .....       | .....       | 804 301     | 815 207     | 791 061     | 418 101 (4) | 21 600      |
| Sweden.....                | 55 113      | 58 186      | 55 786        | 46 369 (2)  | 20 130      | 1 280       | 2 020       | 1 277       | 2 376       | .....       |
| Switzerland.....           | 18 024      | 2 246       | 2 174         | 1 384       | .....       | 4 132       | 23 000      | 21 061      | 8 211       | .....       |
| Sri Lanka.....             | 11 111      | 14 008      | 10 159        | 6 113       | .....       | 1 028       | 14 001      | 14 001      | 14 001      | .....       |

## FOREIGN TRADE OF VARIOUS COUNTRIES

429

| COUNTRY               | Imports     |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
|-----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                       | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        | 1913        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|                       | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Germany .....         | 164 960     | 213 741     | 206 475 (1) | 87 430      | (1)         | 4 410       | 7 285       | 4 668 (1)   | 3 635       | (1)         |
| Argentina .....       | 4 610       | 13 870      | 5 816 (1)   | 2 002       | (2)         | 2 519       | 2 159       | 2 574       | 1 301       | .....       |
| Austria-Hungary ..... | 2 340       | 3 380       | 4 405       | (2)         | (2)         | 26 247      | 15 747      | 11 079 (1)  | 2 544       | (2)         |
| Denmark .....         | 42 557      | 26 718      | 50 410      | 76 980      | 71 740      | 3 687       | 2 260       | 9 645       | 28 864      | 16 779      |
| France .....          | 54 070      | 55 308      | 63 115      | 17 620      | 33 834      | 4 735       | 7 670       | 1 075       | 2 014       | 602         |
| India-China .....     | 3           | 22          | 13          | (2)         | (1)         | 2 570       | 3 233       | 2 160       | (1)         | (2)         |
| United States .....   | .....       | 13 284      | 16 121      | 8 676       | 1 755       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Australia .....       | 2 883       | 2 767       | 1 540       | 2 520       | 416         | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Japan .....           | 260         | 5 000       | 4 007       | 1 209       | .....       | 71          | 268         | 315         | 310         | .....       |
| Norway .....          | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Sweden .....          | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |

(1) 1st half year. — (2) Figures not available. — 3 1st month.

1915-1916



RESUMÉ OF COTTONS

EXPORTS IN 1910, IN LINTED CARDS, IN 500'S

| Countries       | Exports     |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                 | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        | 1916        | 1917        | 1918        | 1919        | 1920        |
|                 | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Austria-Hungary | 1,701       | 3,882       | 4,989 (1)   | 1,879       | (-)         | 15,031      | 15,304      | 18,245 (1)  | 11,060      | (2)         |
| Denmark         | 11,618      | 11,331      | 60,015 (1)  | 60,210      | (-)         | 59          | 472         | 147 (2)     | 418         | (2)         |
| Spain           |             |             |             |             |             | 1,101       | 1,412       | 759         |             |             |
| United States   | 52,819      | 55,156      | 87,679      | 17,365      | 66,617      | 246,615     | 430,791     | 391,562     | 2,10,660    |             |
| United Kingdom  | 198,337     | 201,600     | 275,122     | 259,849     | 210,021     | 2,554       | 3,977       | 5,551       | 3,796       | 96          |
| Netherlands     |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Russia          |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Sweden          |             | 2,102       | 4,359       | 1,621       |             | 149,239     | 313         | 224         |             |             |

1. 1st half year. — 2. Figures not available.

## FOREIGN TRADE IN COTTONSEED CAKES AND MEAL

| Countries      | Imports     |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
|----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        | 1916        | 1917        | 1918        | 1919        | 1920        |
|                | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Denmark        |             | 172,812     | 212,850     | 232,555 (1) | 103,458     |             |             |             |             |             |
| United States  |             |             |             |             |             | 367,872     | 513,170     | 455,894     | 285,355     | 661,539     |
| United Kingdom |             |             | 211,846     | 166,168     | 188,365     |             |             | 7,642       | 4,619       | 2,733       |
| Netherlands    |             | 26,339      | 38,039      | 19,831      | 2,112       |             |             |             |             |             |
| Sweden         |             | 4,211       | 9,195       | 13,088      |             | 21          | 172         | 1,794       |             |             |

(1) 1st half year. — 2. Figures not available.



# FOREIGN TRADE IN VARIOUS FEEDING CAGES (unnamed, etc.).

| Countries             | Imports   |         |             |             | Exports |         |             |             |
|-----------------------|-----------|---------|-------------|-------------|---------|---------|-------------|-------------|
|                       | 1941      | 1942    | 1943        | 1944        | 1943    | 1944    | 1945        | 1946        |
| Belgium               | 756 772   | 794 100 | 828 492 (1) | 367 317 (2) | 254 258 | 263 623 | 294 173 (1) | 171 410 (3) |
| Argentina             |           |         |             |             | 20 228  | 17 022  | 29 582      | 17 403      |
| Australia             | 56 532    | 42 662  | 32 216 (1)  | 12 157 (2)  | 20 697  | 20 755  | 31 585 (1)  | 18 479 (3)  |
| Austria               | 249 253   | 242 354 | 235 932 (1) | 116 311 (2) | 79 642  | 71 423  | 50 816 (1)  | 30 731 (3)  |
| China                 | 56        | 161     | 16          | 14          | 695 303 | 544 513 | 733 810     | 733 519 (2) |
| Denmark               | 313 340   | 266 019 | 287 395 (1) | 151 085 (2) | 16 169  | 16 143  | 25 135      | 12          |
| Egypt                 |           |         |             |             | 85 173  | 86 778  | 62 977      | 79 467      |
| France                | 142 795   | 154 668 | 161 573     | 72 711      | 222 794 | 213 690 | 214 561     | 179 917     |
| Greece                | 4 711     | 3 669   | 2 684       | 2 112       | 1 758   |         |             |             |
| United Kingdom        | 77 681    | 45 481  | 78 288      | 89 346      | 118 708 | 60 293  | 35 867      | 29 894      |
| Australia             | 603       | 458     | 146 (2)     |             | 57      | 40      | 32          | (2)         |
| India                 |           |         | 52          | 500         | 3 055   | 2 575   | 3 704       |             |
| British               |           |         |             | 402         | 135 001 | 150 656 | 181 676     | 151 342     |
| Nigeria               |           |         |             |             |         |         | 2 810       | 1 254 (2)   |
| Union of South Africa |           |         |             |             | 126     | 2 136   | 4 810       | 963         |
| Italy                 | 5 385     | 3 013   | 2 957       | 1 121 (1)   | 40 735  | 26 104  | 16 062      | 54 003 (3)  |
| Japan                 | 1 038 380 | 910 480 | 744 093     | 236 626     | 830 831 |         |             | 3 724       |
| Norway                | 28 782    | 29 665  | 39 122      | 37 668 (3)  | 29 186  | 457     | 342         | 952 (3)     |
| Netherlands           | 67 150    | 76 451  | 47 283      | 21 510      | 26 031  |         |             | 607         |
| Dutch F. India        | (2)       | 221     | 663         | 707 (2)     |         |         |             |             |
| Russia                |           |         |             |             | (2)     |         | 4 952       | 1 427 (2)   |
| Sweden                | 154 636   | 151 553 | 145 416     | 108 895 (1) | 500 308 | 556 101 | 731 200     | 421 406 (4) |
| Switzerland           | 34 093    | 29 928  | 17 008      | 8 708       | 212     | 113     | 113         | 58          |

## FOREIGN TRADE OF VARIOUS COUNTRIES

493

TABLE 1031

| Country                              | Imports     |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             | Exports     |             |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                      | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        | 1913        | 1914        |
|                                      | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Germany:                             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| beet-slices.....                     | 9 271       | 51 500      | 25 819      | (1) 5 878   | (2)         | 42 793      | 4 382       | 7 672       | (1) 1 704   | (2)         |             |             |
| Austria-Hungary:                     |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| beet-slices.....                     | 14 147      | 13 367      | 11 277      | (1) 6 015   | (2)         | 14 405      | 17 462      | 18 086      | (1) 413     | (2)         |             |             |
| Denmark:                             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| molasses.....                        | 7           | 13          | 9           | (2)         | (2)         | 4 865       | 84          | 197         | (2)         | (2)         |             |             |
| molasses feed.....                   | 1 478       | 2 552       | 938         | (2)         | (2)         | 4 407       | 4 622       | 4 261       |             |             |             |             |
| United States:                       |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| beet-pulp (year ending June 30)..... | 1 218       |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| France:                              |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| dried beet pulp.....                 | 48 113      | 42 938      | 1           | 6           | 13          | 1138        | 962         | 488         | 648         | 154         |             |             |
| British Guiana:                      |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| molasses.....                        |             |             |             |             |             | 5 181       | 5 168       | 6 976       | (2)         | (2)         |             |             |
| Mauritius:                           |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| molasses.....                        |             |             |             |             |             | 12          | 376         | 434         | (2)         | (2)         |             |             |
| Norway:                              |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| molasses.....                        |             | 5 058       | 6 704       | 7 087       | (3) 6 143   |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Dutch E. Indies:                     |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| molasses.....                        |             |             |             |             |             | (2)         | 3 536       | 18 208      | 12 355      | (2)         |             |             |
| Sweden:                              |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| molasses feed.....                   | 6 217       | 6 712       | 4 086       | 3 345       |             | 1 666       | 1 136       |             | 541         |             |             |             |

(1) 1st half-year — (2) figures not available — (3) 10 months.



## Residues of Animal Origin.

|                                     | Imports     |             |             |             |             | Exports     |             |             |             |             |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                     | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        | 1915        |
|                                     | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons | metric tons |
| Wool, raw, all kinds, all countries | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | 2,292       | 3,374       | 2,711       | 1,701       | 1,911       |
| Wool, raw, all kinds, all countries | .....       | 50          | 50          | 50          | (1)         | (1)         | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| Wool, raw, all kinds, all countries | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | .....       | 12,314      | 5,48        | 8,020       | 8,078       | 9,031       |

(1) not available, (1) 10 months.

## WHOLESALE PRICES OF CERTAIN FEEDING STUFFS.

owing to the present condition of the international money market, divergence between the value in francs at par and that actually quoted in various markets is very marked. Consequently, in order to have comparable data we have converted the prices in francs at par to terms of pounds. Considering the pound sterling as practically equivalent to francs has been made of the exchange on London. A list of quotations is given below; the conversion coefficients can then be calculated by dividing the rate at par by that obtaining on the particular date under consideration.

## EXCHANGE ON LONDON AT THE END OF EACH MONTH

(Value of the pound sterling relative to various currencies).

| Date                             | United States                    | France                            | Italy                             |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|                                  | Dollars.                         | Francs.                           | Liras.                            |
| <i>(1 pound sterling at par)</i> | <i>(4.86665)</i>                 | <i>(25.221 fr)</i>                | <i>(25.221 l)</i>                 |
| July 1915                        | 4.85 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 25.11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 25.00                             |
| August                           | 4.81                             | 25.27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 25.10                             |
| September                        | 4.80                             | 25.45                             | 27.55                             |
| October                          | 4.79 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 25.50                             | 27.85                             |
| November                         | 4.78 <sup>3</sup> / <sub>4</sub> | 25.92 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 27.62 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> |
| December                         | 4.77 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 26.16                             | 28.45                             |
| January                          | 4.76 <sup>2</sup> / <sub>3</sub> | 26.50                             | 30.27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> |
| February                         | 4.63 <sup>3</sup> / <sub>4</sub> | 27.73 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 30.05                             |
| March                            | 4.70 <sup>3</sup> / <sub>4</sub> | 27.00                             | 29.60                             |
| April                            | 4.65 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 27.53                             | 29.95                             |
| May                              | 4.70                             | 27.78                             | 30.55                             |
| June                             | 4.73 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> | 27.66                             | 31.16                             |

## Residues of Milling Industry.

SPOT PRICES FOR WHEAT BRAN (per 100 kilos).

| Date             | Genoa       | London      | Minneapolis |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                  | gold francs | gold francs | gold francs |
| End January 1918 | 18.28       | 16.13-17.06 | 13.17-13.45 |
| " February       | 16.16       | 17.66-17.68 | 11.59-12.14 |
| " March          | 18.31-18.52 | 16.44-16.75 | 12.17-12.35 |
| " April          | 16.02       | 17.06-17.68 | 11.60-12.76 |
| " May            | 18.26       | 14.89       | 11.03-11.62 |
| " June           | 13.90       | 15.29-15.51 | 11.66-11.91 |
| " July           | 13.75       | 15.20-15.82 | 12.25-12.53 |
| " August         | 14.27       | 16.75-17.06 | 11.09-11.39 |
| " September      | 14.06       | 16.44-16.75 | 10.48-10.63 |
| " October        | 13.86       | 17.99-18.61 | 10.60-10.75 |
| " November       | 16.27       | 20.47-21.22 | 10.64-10.95 |
| " December       | 17.09       | 21.71-21.96 | 10.56-11.15 |

## Residues of Oil and other Industries.

SPOT PRICES FOR LINED Cakes (per 100 kilos).

| Date             | Genoa       | London      | Marseilles  | New         |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                  | gold francs | gold francs | gold francs | gold francs |
| End January 1918 | 26.90       | 27.30       | 27.00       | 27.00       |
| " February       | 27.61-28.23 | 27.61-28.23 | 27.61-28.23 | 27.61-28.23 |
| " March          | 25.14-26.06 | 25.14-26.06 | 25.14-26.06 | 25.14-26.06 |
| " April          | 23.58-24.29 | 23.58-24.29 | 23.58-24.29 | 23.58-24.29 |
| " May            | 24.82-25.44 | 24.82-25.44 | 24.82-25.44 | 24.82-25.44 |
| " June           | 25.14       | 25.14       | 25.14       | 25.14       |
| " July           | 27.02-28.51 | 27.02-28.51 | 27.02-28.51 | 27.02-28.51 |
| " August         | 28.54-29.16 | 28.54-29.16 | 28.54-29.16 | 28.54-29.16 |
| " September      | 28.54-28.85 | 28.54-28.85 | 28.54-28.85 | 28.54-28.85 |
| " October        | 27.92-29.78 | 27.92-29.78 | 27.92-29.78 | 27.92-29.78 |
| " November       | 30.00-30.71 | 30.00-30.71 | 30.00-30.71 | 30.00-30.71 |
| " December       | 31.02-31.61 | 31.02-31.61 | 31.02-31.61 | 31.02-31.61 |

## SPOT PRICES FOR COTTONSEED CAKES (per 100 kilos).

| Date         | London      | New York<br>(6.00 New Orleans) |
|--------------|-------------|--------------------------------|
|              | gold francs | gold francs                    |
| January 1915 | 16.13       | 12.60                          |
| February     | 16.41-16.75 | 14.74                          |
| March        | 15.82       | 14.77                          |
| April        | 15.35-15.51 | .....                          |
| May          | 16.13-16.44 | .....                          |
| June         | 16.13       | 13.98                          |
| July         | 17.00       | .....                          |
| August       | 19.85       | .....                          |
| September    | 20.78       | 14.70-15.04                    |
| October      | 22.33       | 16.73-17.02                    |
| November     | 23.20-23.58 | 17.10                          |
| December     | 24.51-24.82 | 17.03                          |

## SPOT PRICES FOR GROUND-NUT CAKES (per 100 kilos).

| Date         | Ganon       | London      | Maracilles  |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|              | gold francs | gold francs | gold francs |
| January 1915 | .....       | 22.02       | .....       |
| February     | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| March        | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| April        | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| May          | .....       | .....       | .....       |
| June         | .....       | 21.71       | .....       |
| July         | .....       | 21.71       | 12.85       |
| August       | .....       | 21.71-22.02 | 13.19       |
| September    | 17.04-17.89 | 21.71       | 16.22       |
| October      | 16.84-17.68 | 23.58       | 14.66       |
| November     | 16.51-17.34 | 23.89       | 14.75       |
| December     | 16.19-17.00 | 26.79       | 15.73       |

## SPOT PRICES FOR COPRA CAKES (per 100 kilos).

| Date             | Genoa       | London      |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|
|                  | gold francs | gold francs |
| End January 1915 | 20,63 21,10 | 18,92       |
| " February " "   | 19,52 19,97 | 18,92-19,23 |
| " March " "      | 19,91-20,37 | 17,37       |
| " April " "      | 19,00 20,15 | 16,75       |
| " May " "        | 19,86 20,77 | 16,75-17,37 |
| " June " "       | 19,28 19,72 | 17,09       |
| " July " "       | 16,25 17,08 | 19,23       |
| " August " "     | 16,37-17,21 | 19,85       |
| " September " "  | 16,62 17,47 | 20,17       |
| " October " "    | 16,42 17,26 | 21,10       |
| " November " "   | 16,51 16,92 | 22,33       |
| " December " "   | 16,50 17,09 | 24,39       |

## SPOT PRICES FOR SESAME CAKES (per 100 kilos).

| Date             | Genoa       | London      |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|
|                  | gold francs | gold francs |
| End January 1915 | 21,50-22,03 |             |
| " February " "   | 20,64 21,09 |             |
| " March " "      | 21,06 21,51 |             |
| " April " "      | 20,83-21,28 |             |
| " May " "        | 21,00-21,46 |             |
| " June " "       | 20,39-20,83 |             |
| " July " "       | 16,66-17,50 | 13,7        |
| " August " "     | 19,70-17,25 | 13,7        |
| " September " "  | 17,04-17,47 | 13,7        |
| " October " "    | 16,84-17,26 | 13,7        |
| " November " "   | 15,68-16,51 | 17,7        |
| " December " "   | 15,38 16,19 | 17,7        |

# PRICES

499

## SPOT PRICES FOR VARIOUS CAKES (per 100 kilos).

| Date         | Palm kernel | Maize       |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|
|              | London      | New York    |
|              | gold francs | gold francs |
| Jan. 1, 1915 | 17.06       | 16.04-16.61 |
| Jan. 15      | 17.37       | 20.24-20.81 |
| Feb. 1       | 16.44       | 17.38-17.96 |
| Feb. 15      | 15.51       | 12.70-13.01 |
| Mar. 1       | 14.80       | 12.78-13.94 |
| Mar. 15      |             | 12.82-13.08 |
| Apr. 1       |             | 12.83-13.99 |
| Apr. 15      |             | 17.08       |
| May 1 (bkt)  |             | 16.83       |
| May 15       | 17.47       | 17.02       |
| June 1       | 19.23       | 16.86       |
| June 15      |             | 16.73       |

## Common Standards of Measurement for Chief Concentrates and their Metrical Equivalents.

| Markets           | Standard      | Metrical equivalent |
|-------------------|---------------|---------------------|
|                   |               | kg.                 |
| <i>Wheat.</i>     |               |                     |
| Belgium           | 100 kg.       | .....               |
| Hungary           | Zentner       | 50                  |
| United States     | Long ton      | 1 016               |
|                   | Short ton     | 907.18              |
|                   | 100 kg.       | .....               |
| Kingdom           | Ton           | 1 016               |
|                   | Short ton     | 907.18              |
|                   | Bazaar maund  | 37.251              |
| East Africa       | Bag           | 64.40               |
|                   | Quintal       | 100                 |
|                   | Ponl          | 16.38               |
| <i>Oil Cakes.</i> |               |                     |
| Belgium           | Doppelzentner | 100                 |
| France            | Picoul        | 60.479              |
| Germany           | Ardeb         | 121.23              |
| United States     | Long ton      | 1 016               |
|                   | Short ton     | 907.185             |
|                   | 100 kg.       | .....               |
| Kingdom           | Ton           | 1 016               |
|                   | Ton           | 1 016               |
|                   | Bazaar maund  | 37.324              |
|                   | 10 Kwan       | 37.50               |
| India             | 100 kg.       | .....               |
|                   | Pouel         | 16.38               |



## BIBLIOGRAPHY.

## General.

- AMMAN, L. Sons de meules et sons de cylindres. *La Vie Agricole et Rurale*, V, 1915.
- APPEL, A. Huslybruger 1914 med særligt henblik paa kvægavlen og kvægfoderen. Foderforbrugel. *Tidskrift for Landøkonomi*, 7, 325-328, 1915.
- CHIGI, F. Sull'ingrassamento dei vitelli. *La Rivista*, XXI, 516-520, 1915.
- COMMISSIONER OF AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES, STATE CAPITOL, COLUMBIA, S. C. Commercial Feed Stuffs Act, 1-7, 1916.
- CROWTHER, C. & RUSTON, A. G. The Valuation of the Manure Residues obtained from the Consumption of Foods by growing Pigs. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, LV, 789-800, 1914.
- [DENMARK]. Gjennemsnits indholdet af kvælstofholdige stoffer og fedt i de vigtigste handelsfødestoffer (Udarbejdet af Danmarks Landbrugs- og Laboratorium 1915). *Meddelelser*, XXVIII, 738, 1915.
- [DENMARK]. Kontrolforeningernes Samarbejde med Hensyn til fødeenheds-spørgsmaal. *Vidensk. Tidsskrift for Landmand*, LX, 587-588, 1915.
- DONNELLY, H. B. Feed-stuff Analyses. *Maryland Agricultural College Quarterly*, 66, 1915.
- DUPUIS, P. Les succédanés de l'avoine dans l'alimentation des chevaux de gros trait. *La Vie Agricole et Rurale*, V, 51, 1915.
- EAST ANGLIAN INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE. Feeding Value of Cattle Foods. Circular.
- [UNITED STATES]. Foodstuffs, Guaranty of manufacturer or dealer, Food and Drug Laboratory established, California Act of April 25, 1915. *The Journal of Industrial Engineering Chemistry*, VII, 809, 1915.
- F. B. Gli alimenti concentrati per bestiame. *Giornale di Agricoltura della Domenica*, XX, 1915.
- GARRAD, G. H. Cost of Winter Feeding in Milk Production. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 841-846, 1915.
- [GERMANY]. German Agriculture and the War. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 711-750, 1915.
- [GERMANY]. Produktionskosten für Milch in Teckland. *Tidskrift for Landmand*, XXX, 686-688, 1915.
- [GERMANY]. Verkehr mit Futtermitteln, Verordnung des Bundesrats vom 31. März 1915. *Der Sachverhalt, Nahrung- und Futtermittelmarkt*, XXI, 332-334, 1915.
- HALEMAN, E. T. Influence of the War on Supplies and Use of Feeding Stuffs. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 737-741, 1915.
- INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE. *Bulletin mensuel des renseignements sur les maladies des plantes* VI-VII, passim, 1915-1916.
- JOVINO, S. Della razione e dei foraggi più economici. *Le Stazioni Sperimentali Agrarie*, CLXXVIII, 500-502, 1915.
- JØRGENSEN, G. Om Bestemmelse af træstof i foderstoffer. *Tidskrift for Landøkonomi*, VII, 191, 1915.
- KAMPEN, C. B. V. Het gehalte aan oplosbare hooihydraten van voedermiddelen als maat voor de beoordeling van de kwaliteit. *Cultuur*, XXVII, 15-256, 1915.

1913. Die Verwertung der Erfahrungen aus Dürrejahren zur Behebung der Futtermangel. *Illustrirte Landwirtschaftliche*, XXXV, 211-212, 217-218, 1915.
1913. J. Unsere Fettversorgung. *Oesterreichische Chemiker-Zeitung*, XVIII, 63-67, 1913.
1913. Des substitutions dans le rationnement du bétail algérien. *Bulletin Agricole de l'Algérie*, XXI, 212-218, 1916.
1913. E. La fabrication de produits alimentaires nouveaux en Allemagne. *Le Genre*, LXXI, 313-315, 1915.
1913. J. G. Is het in vele gevallen bij aankoop van voedselmiddelen niet mogelijk wettelijk om de garantie voor het citwingehalte te laten vervallen? *Verslagen van de wetenschappelijke onderzoeken der Rijkslandbouwoverstations*, XVI, 85-88, 1915.
1913. J. G. Förklarad hos lbf och lbfvar. *Landmannen*, 32, 281-282, 1915.
1913. Coöperative aankoop van voedselmiddelen in 1913. *Achat coopératif de fourrages*, 1913. *Département van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel, Verslagen en Mededeelingen van den Directie van den Landbouw*, 3, 72-73, 1915.
1913. In en uitvoer in Nederland van sommige artikelen, volgens de Nederlandstatistiek, E. Voeder- en Meststoffen. *Département van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel, Verslagen en Mededeelingen van den Directie van den Landbouw*, 3, 118, 1915.
1913. J. Die Futterpreistafel, Einfaches Verfahren, die Aufstellung preiswürdiger Futterstoffen auf der Köhlnerschen Grundlage, Anleitung zum Gebrauch der von Neubauer gegebenen Hilfsmittel, Futterpreistafel und Rechenschieber. Berlin, 1914.
1913. A. K. Welke factoren zijn van invloed op de kwaliteit van krachtvoer? *Nederlandsche Weekblad voor Zuivelbereiding en Veevecht*, 43, 7-8, 1916.
1913. T. Experiments dealing with the Stock Carrying Capacity of various Fodder Crops. *Journal of the Department of Agriculture of South Australia*, XIX, 161-168, 1915.
1913. J. The Importance of the Fibre Content of Concentrated Foods (Paper read at the Agric. Educ. Assoc. Meeting, 1915, summarised from "Farmer and Stockbreeder"), 20th and 21st September 1915. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 569-600, 1915.
1915. H. J. Polringslaere, København, 1915.
1915. R. H. Farming and Food Supplies in Time of War (The British Association, Section M), 1916, XCVI, 216-226, 1916.
1915. R. G. Some Methods of Adding to our Food Supplies. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1167-1178, 1916.
1915. Die Erzeugung und Verwendung der Kraftfuttermittel. Wien, 1915.
1915. Gemensinnig nordisk folerhetsberäkning. *Indskrift for Landmænd*, XXVI, 180-184, 1915.
1915. W. M. Hints on Feeding: a Practical Book on the Feeding of Live Stock. Basingstoke, 1915.
1915. W. H. & HICKMAN, C. W. Steer Feeding Experiments. *The Pennsylvania State College Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin* 133, 218-252, 1914.
1915. Il valore commerciale relativo dei pascelli, dei fieni, della crusca e della paglia di frumento. *Giornale di Agricoltura della Domenica*, XXV, 474, 1915.
1915. [to KINGDOM], Autumn and Winter Fodder. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1-16, 1915.
1915. [to KINGDOM], Imports and Exports of Agricultural Produce in 1914. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 313-334, 1915.
1915. [to KINGDOM], Imports of Agricultural Produce in 1915. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 686-697, 1916.
1915. [to KINGDOM], Notes on Feeding Stuffs in May (From the Animal Nutrition Institute, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 148-152, 1915.
1915. [to KINGDOM], Notes on Feeding Stuffs in June (From the Animal Nutrition Institute, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 248-252, 1915.

- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in July (From the Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 32.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in August (From the Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 230-1.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in September (From the Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 350-1.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in October (From the Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 465.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in November (From Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 712-3.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in December (From the Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 777-8.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in January (From the Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1004-5.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Feeding Stuffs in February (From the Animal Nutrition Committee, Cambridge University). *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1114-15.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Notes on Poultry Feeding. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 533-5, 633-6, 637.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Present Comparative Values of Feeding Stuffs. *The Journal of Agriculture*, XXI, 1111-1116, 1915.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Present Comparative Value of Feeding Stuffs. *The Journal of Agriculture*, XXII, 529-61, 1918.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Prevention of Fraud in the Sale of Fertilisers and Feeding Stuffs. *ibid.*, *ibid.*, *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 615, 1918.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Prices of Feeding Stuffs in London. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 9-27, 161, 1915.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Sampling and Analysis of Feeding Stuffs. *The Journal of Agriculture*, XXII, 793, 1918.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Substitutes for Oats in Feeding Farm Horses. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 808-811, 151-1915.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] Suggestions for the Cultivation of Cereals and Home-grown Feeding Stuffs. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 21-35, 1915.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] The Maintenance Requirement of Cattle. *Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 18*, Columbia, Missouri, 1915.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] The Scientific Feeding of Cows. *The Estate Magazine*, XV, 11-12.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] The Use and Purchase of Feeding Stuffs. *Journal of the Board of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland*, XV, 759-773, 1918.
- [UNITED KINGDOM.] The Use of Forage Crops for Pig-Feeding. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 183-184, 1918.
- VORTINO, R. Foraggi concentrati convenienti per l'agricoltore. *Il Collettore*, LXI, 85.
- WERNER, M. Modellanalyse fram Ahnaps Laboratorium IXI, Nâgra Kôppler under 1918. *Landbote für Landwirte*, XXXVI, 670-681, 1918.
- WISSLOW, F. D. Freight-inlet feeding-stuff prices in Denmark. *Commerce Report*, 1918.

### Cereal and Pulse Grains, Roots and their Residues.

- BARRETT, J. A. Análises de resíduos de arroz. (Trabalhos do Instituto Agrônomo de Pernambuco, *Comunicação Oficial Pública, do Estado de São Paulo*, XV, 25-26).
- BARRETT, J. A. Valor alimentício do farelo de espigas de milho em comparação com grãos. (Trabalhos do Instituto Agrônomo). *Boletim de Agricultura*, V, 10-11.
- BURKHOFF, R. F. Cereals utilization. *Verslagen van Landbouwkundige onderzoekingen Landbouwkundige stations*, XVI, 101-107, 1918.

10. Exposição de milho do mez vindouro. *Chataras e Quendas*, XI, 101-104, 1915.
11. Exposition Nationale du Maïs à São Paulo. *Exhibitor 1915* (ed. du Bureau de Recensement), *Printed in Paris*, 16, 78, 1915.
12. Maïs en culture in Nederland van sommige artikelen, volgens de Sociëteitsde
13. A. Akkerbouw. Producten, Gransen en melk. *Departement van Landbouw, Nijver-  
heid, Handel, Verkeers en Meubelmaken van den Provincie van den Landbouw*, 3,  
1915.
14. Les sorghos dans l'alimentation du bétail. *La Vie Agricole et Rurale*, VI, 122, 1916.
15. Motive des exportations de riz, pulvis, bagasses et fanes de Ceylan (Fin de 1916).
16. *Balladen Föreläsningsplan för Föreläsning, te sammanfattning av Föreläsning*, XVIII,  
1915.
17. Sammensætningen af Kærnes Foder (Statistiske Efterundersøgelser). *Fiskeri og  
Landbrug*, LX, 107-108, 1915.
18. Sorghum. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 165-169, 1915.
19. The Cultivation of Buckwheat. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII,  
169-170.
20. 1915. Rice Bran. *The Journal of the London Agricultural Society*, XIX, 184.
21. 1915. The Utilisation of Cereal Oats and certain other Products for Feeding  
Pigs. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 601-605, 1914.
22. 1915. The Utilisation of Cereal Oats and Certain other Products for Feeding  
Pigs. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 227-230, 1915.
23. 1915. Los residuos del maíz. *Resumen de Experimentos*, 3, 100-101, 1915.
24. 1915. Grades for commercial corn. *Bulletin of the U. S. Department of Agriculture*,  
168, 1915.
25. 1915. A Maïs en bare byggeplanen. *Veirslags- og Landbrugsakademiet, områder og  
Landbrugsforsøg*, XVI, 108-112, 1915.
26. Die Sicherung der Getreidekerne insbesondere durch die künstliche Trocknung.  
1915.
27. 1915. Club Nacional de Milho. *Chataras e Quendas*, XII, 127, 1915.
28. 1915. Club Nacional de Milho e conservação do milho. *Chataras e Quendas*, XI, 109-109.
29. 1915. Den danske Landbrugsforskningssekretariat med kongelige forskningsråd i Kjøbenhavn. *Prilærte Færd*, 1915. *Fiskeri og Landbrug*, LX, 107-108, 1915.
30. Sur la fixation des Fatines. *C. R. des Séances de l'Académie d'Agriculture de France*,  
1915, 1915.
31. 1915. G. ARPIN, Influence de la densité d'un blé sur son rendement en farine.  
*Annales de l'Académie d'Agriculture de France*, LX, 107-108, 1915.
32. 1915. Cereali dei cereali come alimento degli animali agricoli. *L'Agricoltura Italiana*,  
XX, 107-108, 1915.
33. 1915. Gravellet hos lot och ledvåg. *Landmanerna*, 32, 107-108, 1915.
34. 1915. Reine Sortenprüfung. *LIV*, 25, 1915.
35. 1915. I dati di grano duro nell'alimentazione del bestiame. *Il Collettore*, 11, 1915.
36. 1915. 1915.
37. 1915. 1915.
38. 1915. 1915.
39. 1915. 1915.
40. 1915. 1915.
41. 1915. 1915.
42. 1915. 1915.
43. 1915. 1915.
44. 1915. 1915.
45. 1915. 1915.
46. 1915. 1915.
47. 1915. 1915.
48. 1915. 1915.
49. 1915. 1915.
50. 1915. 1915.
51. 1915. 1915.
52. 1915. 1915.
53. 1915. 1915.
54. 1915. 1915.
55. 1915. 1915.
56. 1915. 1915.
57. 1915. 1915.
58. 1915. 1915.
59. 1915. 1915.
60. 1915. 1915.
61. 1915. 1915.
62. 1915. 1915.
63. 1915. 1915.
64. 1915. 1915.
65. 1915. 1915.
66. 1915. 1915.
67. 1915. 1915.
68. 1915. 1915.
69. 1915. 1915.
70. 1915. 1915.
71. 1915. 1915.
72. 1915. 1915.
73. 1915. 1915.
74. 1915. 1915.
75. 1915. 1915.
76. 1915. 1915.
77. 1915. 1915.
78. 1915. 1915.
79. 1915. 1915.
80. 1915. 1915.
81. 1915. 1915.
82. 1915. 1915.
83. 1915. 1915.
84. 1915. 1915.
85. 1915. 1915.
86. 1915. 1915.
87. 1915. 1915.
88. 1915. 1915.
89. 1915. 1915.
90. 1915. 1915.
91. 1915. 1915.
92. 1915. 1915.
93. 1915. 1915.
94. 1915. 1915.
95. 1915. 1915.
96. 1915. 1915.
97. 1915. 1915.
98. 1915. 1915.
99. 1915. 1915.
100. 1915. 1915.

- VAILLE, L. Alimentation des veaux au manioc (Société d'Agriculture, Gironde, 1897).  
*Revue Scientifique*, LIII, 566-567, 1915.
- WILLIAMSON, A. A. Marketing the new soya bean crop in Manchuria. *Commerce Reports*, 1915, 518-519, 1915.

### Oil Fruits and Seeds and their Residues.

- AVERY, L. W. Manufacture of copra in British Honduras. *Commerce Reports*, 211, 1915.
- BALDWIN, A. H. Cotton-seed products in England. *Commerce Reports*, 11, 296, 1915.
- BARTHÉLEMY, P. Les bonteaux d'annone de palmiste. *Journal d'Agriculture pratique*, 1917, 1917.
- BOWMER, J. P. Output and prices of Philippine copra. *Commerce Reports*, 143, 129, 1915.
- COLLINS, S. H. The Feeding of Linseed to Calves. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 129-131, 1915.
- DURANGE, L. Quelques conseils pratiques sur la culture du lin. *Le Progrès agricole*, XX, 1915.
- DESSIAN, W. R. Oil seed and Feeding Cakes (Imperial Institute Monographs), 1909.
- REDAI, Controli e adulterazioni dei pannoni. *Rivista di Agricoltura*, XXI, 808-809, 1915.
- ERKSTADT, Joh. A. Over het aantoonen van de zaai-kern van Katonzaai en groenloze en de schatting van hiervan eventueel in veevoedermiddelen aanwezige hoeveelheden. *Verhandl. van Landbouwkundige onderzoekingen der Rijkslandbouwschool*, X, 89-91, 1915.
- FRIEDRICH, S. Die Sojabohne. *Fehlungs Landwirtschaftliche Zeitung*, LXIV, 68-69, 1915.
- GAYLUS, A. France (Marseilles), Highest record in arrivals of peanuts. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 54, 18, 1915.
- GAYLUS, A. France (Marseilles), Oilseed and vegetable oil trade. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 54, 4, 1915.
- GROSA, C. D. El cultivo del lino para la producción de la semilla en la Argentina. *Buenos Aires*, 1915.
- GROSIN, A. & ANDOARD, P. Les bonteaux dans l'alimentation des animaux. *Comptes Rendus Séances de l'Académie d'Agriculture de France*, I, 808-810, 1915.
- GRANATO, L. Tortas de linóleo. *O Criador Paulista*, X, 185-188, 1915.
- HARRIS GARRARD, A. New oil nut from Central America. *Commerce Reports*, 222, 147, 1915.
- HATHAWAY, Ch. M. Hull oilseed imports. *Commerce Reports*, 235, 107, 1915.
- HATHAWAY, Ch. M. Six months' Hull oil and seed trade. *Commerce Reports*, 176, 133, 1915.
- HOLLINGWORTH, A. G. Analysis of Peanut Oilcake. *The Rhodesia Agricultural Journal*, XI, 528, 1915.
- JOHNSON, S. S. F. Growing use of cotton seed meal in Ontario. *Commerce Reports*, 231, 1915.
- MCBRIDE, H. A. Belgian Congo, Exportation of palm oil and kernels. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 64a, 5, 1915.
- MCBRIDE, H. A. Belgian Congo, Peanuts, rice, and other products. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 64a, 6-7, 1915.
- MCBRIDE, H. A. Belgian Congo, Uses of the palm kernel. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 64a, 6, 1915.
- MCBRIDE, H. A. Belgian Congo, War's effect on palm kernel business. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 64a, 5-a, 1915.
- MEMMINGER, L. Oil bearing seeds in India. *Commerce Reports*, 225, 1030-1031, 1915.
- MOOREHEAD, M. K. British India, Burma, Production and export of beans. *The Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 50b, 7-8, 1915.
- MOOREHEAD, M. K. British India, Burma, Production and export of peanuts. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 50b, 8, 1915.

- (1915) K. China, Manchuria, Big crop of soya beans, large percentage remains unsold. *Supplement to Commerce Report, Annual Series*, **52b**, 4, 1915.
- (1915) A. J. Palmnut Kernel Cake, *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 1095-1097, 1915.
- (1915) 1. Turkey (Mersina), Cereal crops below normal, sesame seed yield. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, **18b**, 7 S, 1915.
- (1915) Indienske fabrikation af oliekarer. *Landskønsmærket*, **14**, 123-124, 1915.
- (1915) A new Philippine oil nut. *Commerce Reports*, **303**, 1214, 1915.
- (1915) Les cultures d'exportation, Le cocotier. *Revue Agricole, organe de la Chambre d'Agriculture de la Nouvelle-Calédonie, Nouméa*, **46**, 11-18, 1915.
- (1915) New Markets for British Colonial and Indian Copra. *The Agricultural Bulletin of the Federated Malay States*, III, 108-110, 1914.
- (1915) Nos exportations agricoles: Résultats de l'année 1914. *Revue Agricole, organe de la Chambre d'Agriculture de la Nouvelle-Calédonie, Nouméa special*, **46**, 16-17, 1915.
- (1915) Seychelles Rubber and Coconut. *The India Rubber Journal*, L, 29, 1915.
- (1915) United States of America (Philippine Islands), Copra and Coconut Oil Exports. *The Board of Trade Journal*, XC, 312, 1915.
- (1915) Cotton seed crushed and hinters obtained. *Commerce Reports*, **295**, 1091, 1915.
- (1915) Groundnut in Burma. *The Indian Agriculturist*, XI, 104, 1915.
- (1915) In- en uitvoer in Nederland van sommige artikelen, volgens de Nederlandsche Statistiek, A. Akkerbouw Producten, Oliezaden en andere zaden. *Departement van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel, Verslagen en Mededeelingen van den Directie van den Landbouw*, **3**, 110-111, 1915.
- (1915) Linseed as a Farm Crop. (Communicated by the British Flax and Hemp Grower's Society, Limited) *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1099, 1915.
- (1915) Oil Seeds and Oil Extraction. *Tropical Life*, XI, 251, 1915.
- (1915) Soya Beans. *The Chemical Trade Journal and Chemical Engineer*, LXVII, 591, 1915.
- (1915) Winterkoolzaai (Winter rape). *Departement van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel, Verslagen en Mededeelingen van den Directie van den Landbouw*, **3**, 17, 1915.
- (1915) Zomeroliezaden (Spring oil crops). *Departement van Landbouw, Nijverheid en Handel, Verslagen en Mededeelingen van den Directie van den Landbouw*, **3**, 14, 1915.
- de VALLINO, J. El muni. Experiencias culturales realizadas en el Laboratorio Agronomico de la Inspección Nacional de Ganaderia y Agricultura. *República Oriental del Uruguay, Ministerio de Industrias, Inspección Nacional de Ganaderia y Agricultura*, **17**, 1-18, 1916.
- GOH, Y. G. Report on the Oil pressing Industry of Bombay. Bombay, 1914.
- WILLIAMS, H. China (Hankow) Bean cake and Beans. *Supplement to Commerce Report, Annual Series*, **52b**, 7, 1915.
- (1915) OF OIL FRUITS. Coconut Cake and Palmnut Kernel Cake. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 1025-1032, 1915.
- (1915) OF OIL FRUITS. Palmnut Kernel Cake. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1098-1099, 1916.
- (1915) OF OIL SEEDS AND FRUITS. Vegetable Oil Notes. *Tropical Life*, XI, 164-166, 1915.
- (1915) OF OIL SEEDS. Cotton Seed Products in India (Pamphlet issued by the Indian Cotton Oil Co. Ltd.), Bombay, 1914.
- (1915) OF OIL SEEDS. L'emploi des tourteaux. *Journal d'Agriculture pratique*, LXXIX, 172, 1915.
- (1915) OF OIL SEEDS. Fabricación de aceites de semillas oleaginosas. *Gaceta Rural*, IX, 174-175, 1915.

- [RESIDUES OF OIL SEEDS], Ground Nut Cake. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, 1915-16, 1915.
- [RESIDUES OF OIL SEEDS], Hull Seed Crushing Industry. *Fertilisers and Fertilisation*, VIII, 176, 1917.
- [RESIDUES OF OIL SEEDS], Lijfboekcommissie. *De Landbouw en Landbouwerij van Nederland, Verslag over de Landbouw van de Landbouw en Landbouw*, 3, 38, 1917.
- [RESIDUES OF OIL SEEDS], Oil-seed Trade and Oil Industry of India in 1917. *Journal of Trade Journal*, XXII, 2729, 1919.
- [RESIDUES OF OIL SEEDS], Tsimacoli Gellera. *Ki-tschu-tsu-tsu*, XXI, 100.
- ROUVREY, A. Tonbeaux de coprah. *Le Progrès Agricole*, XXIX, 2322, 1919.
- ROUVREY, A. Tonbeaux de noix. *Le Progrès Agricole*, XXIX, 2134-2135, 1919.
- ROUVREY, A. Tonbeaux de palme. *Le Progrès Agricole*, XXIX, 2119, 1919.
- REMKER, K. v. Über Gelfrüchten. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschafts-Gesellschaft*, 27, 1913.
- SHIMBES, Th. Shuang, Domestic Exports of cotton, rice, beans and peanut oil. *Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 57f, 19, 1915.
- SORST, P. Cane sugar-stem-panselli. *L'Agriculture Moderne*, XXII, 118, 1915.
- THOMPSON, Cottonseed products and their competitors in northern Europe. *Commerce Reports*, 1915.
- UTER, A. J. Bon nouveau cultiva, De oliegedin. *Handelswetenschap, Levensmiddelen*, XXVI, 1917.
- WARRICK, J. N. Coconut industry of British North Borneo. *Commerce Reports*, 515, 1915.
- WILD, T. H. Sunflower for seed and stipe. *The Country Gentleman*, LXXX, 1915.
- WEST, G. N. Japan, Apples and pears. *Fertiliser market, Supplement to Commerce Reports*, 55d, 67, 1915.
- WILLIAMS, A. A. Indian sown-bean market becomes animated. *Commerce Reports*, 578, 1175, 1915.
- YERBY, W. J. British West Africa, Gambia, Importance of the peanut trade. *Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 61a, 1-2, 1915.
- YERBY, W. J. British West Africa, Gold Coast Colony, Export of timber, palm kernel and rubber. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 61a, 6, 1915.
- YERBY, W. J. British West Africa, Sierra Leone, Fluctuation in palm oil trade. *Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 62, 6, 1915.
- YERBY, W. J. French West Africa, Principal exports. *Supplement to Commerce Reports, Annual Series*, 69a, 1, 1915.
- YERBY, W. J. Palm and palm kernel oil industry. *Commerce Reports*, 331, 29, 1915.

### Residues of Sugar Crops.

- BURN, M. The manufacture of by-products in the sugar factories of Demerara. *The Planter and Sugar Manufacturer*, LV, 100-111, 1913.
- REY, H. La fabrication de betteraves à sucre. *Le Progrès Agricole et Rural*, VI, 1, 17-19.
- WARRICK, A. T. Molasses as a Bernambuco export article. *Commerce Reports*, 418.
- HARRISON, J. B. & HANCOCK, C. K. The Field and Forest Resources of British India. *Journal of the Imperial Institute*, XIII, 207-213, 1915.
- MAUREL, X. J. Méthode d'utilisation des betteraves dans l'alimentation du bétail. *Journal de l'Agriculture*, VI, 27-33, 1919.
- MEYER, L. & NACHREIN, V. Theorie und Praxis der Rübenblätterfütterung. *Zeitschrift für Deutsche Landwirtschaftswissenschaften*, 32, 1915.

- AND Die Melasse- und Zuckerverfütterung. *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, 1915.
12. RESIDUES. Het benutten van suikerbieropkopen en bladden voor de voeding van de darren voor de bemesting. *Plattelandt voor Landbouw, Nieuw en Hantel*, 1915.
13. RESIDUES. Mandelungen van de Perceit van de Landbouw, 4, 42-43, 1915.
14. RESIDUES. The Feeding and Manure Values of Sugar Beet Crowns and Tops. *The Journal of the Royal Society of Tropical Agriculture*, XXII, 1915, 1915.
15. RESIDUES. Limassolbestand. *Rivista di Agricoltura*, XXI, 1915, 1915.

### Residues of Brewing, Distilling and Allied Industries.

16. G. T. P. & GIMMINGHAM, C. T. The Use of Pressed Apple Pomace. *The Journal of the Royal Society of Tropical Agriculture*, XXII, 1915, 1915.
17. A. Steinköhler. Ammoniak-Eiweiss. *Zeitschrift für Spiritusindustrie*, XXXVIII, 1915, 1915.
18. RESIDUES. Alimentación de animales. Los residuos del malta. *Anales de la Sociedad Agrícola Argentina*, I, 1915, 1915.
19. RESIDUES. Malt Culms. *The Journal of the Royal Society of Tropical Agriculture*, XXII, 1915, 1915.
20. MAKING RESIDUES. Apple Pomace as a Feeding Stuff. *The Journal of the Royal Society of Tropical Agriculture*, XXII, 1915, 1915.
21. MAKING RESIDUES. Les mares de pommes dans l'alimentation du bétail. *Travaux de l'Institut de Médecine de l'Agriculture*, XX, 33, 1915, 1915.
22. Dried Yeasts Food for Farm Stock. *The Journal of the Royal Society of Tropical Agriculture*, XXII, 1915, 1915.
23. RESIDUES. Die Massenherstellung von Futterweiss. *Zeitschrift für Spiritusindustrie*, XXXVIII, 1915, 1915.
24. RESIDUES. Ein Triumph der deutschen Wissenschaft. *Deutsche Südland-Zeitung*, XV, 1915, 1915.
25. RESIDUES. Eiweissabklärung aus Ammoniak-Nickelstoffs durch Hefe. *Chemische Zeitung*, XXXIX, 1915, 1915.
26. RESIDUES. Futterweiss aus der Luft und ausländische Futtermittel. *Deutsche Südland-Zeitung*, VI, 1915, 1915.
27. RESIDUES. Ein die Futterweissbereitung mittelst Hefe. *Zeitschrift für Spiritusindustrie*, XXXVIII, 1915, 1915.
28. RESIDUES. Massenherstellung von Futterhefe. *Deutsche Südland-Zeitung*, XVI, 1915, 1915.
29. RESIDUES. Remarks on the manufacture of animal yeast. *Food and Farming*, 1915, 1915.
30. RESIDUES. Zur Geschichte der Herstellung von Futterweiss mit Hilfe der Gärung. *Mineralheiler Zeitschrift für Spiritusindustrie*, XXXVIII, 1915, 1915.
31. Die Ernährung der Hefe mit der Landwirtschaft zugehörigen Düngemitteln. *Zeitschrift für Spiritusindustrie*, XXXVIII, 1915, 1915.
32. T. T. The Value of Dried Brewers' Grain as a Feeding Material. *The Journal of the Royal Society of Tropical Agriculture*, XXI, 1915, 1915.
33. R. A new feed-stuff. *Revue de Malterie*, 6, 1915. *Proc. Products*, XI, 1915, 1915.
34. Die Hefe als Heilmittel, Nahrungsmittel und Futtermittel. *Mitteilungen der Paul-Landwirtschafsgesellschaft*, III, 1915, 1915.
35. Fat yeast, a new discovery. *Landwirtschaft*, 13, 1915. *Proc. Products*, XI, 1915, 1915.



- MARBACH, A. Neues Verfahren der Heleerzeugung aus Zucker- und Mineralsalzen. *Deutsche Chemiker Zeitung*, XVIII, 62-63, 1915.
- MAVER, A. Zur Fütterung mit Kunsthefe. *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, XLII, 1915.
- M. W. Agghivita ur lufion. Ett nytt kraftfoder? *Tidsskrift for Landmæn*, XXXVI, 1915.
- NAGEL, C. Vollständige Vergärung von ziemlich hochkonzentrierten (ca. 16-prozentigen) Lösungen von Rohrzucker durch Ernährung der Hefe mit Mineralsalzen (ohne Mätsch). Vergleichsweise werden anderen pflanzlichen Mährstoffe. *Zeitschrift für Spiritusindustrie*, XXV, 123, 1915.
- ROUVROY, A. Germe de malt, trebbelles, tourillons. *Le Progrès Agricole*, XXIX, 217-218, 1915.
- ROUVROY, A. Les mûres de pommes. *Le Progrès Agricole*, XXIX, 2120-2121, 1915.
- TORRE, E. La razionale utilizzazione delle vinacce, secondi vini e vinelli. La coltivazione delle vinacce da foraggio. *Giornale di Agricoltura della Domenica*, XXV, 1915.
- VOITZ, W. Wie gross sind die Veränderungen im Nährstoffgehalt der Kartoffelknollen? *Zeitschrift für Spiritusindustrie*, XXVIII, 145-149, 1915.
- WINDEN, K. The utilization of waste materials from breweries as foodstuffs. *Food and Nutrition*, XI, 511-514, 1915.
- WINDEN, K. [WINEN, K.] Vinacce foraggio. *Rivista di Agricoltura*, XXI, 669-670, 1915.

### Various Feeding Stuffs.

- ARMSTRONG, J. S. New feeding stuffs in Bristol. *Commerce Report*, 325, 1459-1461.
- BENAVIDES, J. J. La alfalfa, su origen, caracteres, cultivo, etc. etc. *La Gaceta del Gobierno*, 93-96, 1915.
- BIRCHET, A. Forragens para gado, su valor e contra-indicaes. *Boletim de Agricultura e Pecuaria da Agricultura, Commercio e Obras Publicas do Estado de São Paulo*, XV, 1002-1003, 1914.
- BIRCHET, A. *Paspalum dilatatum*. *Boletim de Agricultura, Secretaria da Agricultura, Commercio e Obras Publicas do Estado de São Paulo*, XV, 1002-1003, 1914.
- BRUMME, J. *Loucaena glauca* Pentin. *Broschenshandl. Tidsskrift for Landmæn*, VIII, 209, 1915.
- BUCH-GASSMÖ. Kan pengegras (*Uhluspi arvensis*) gi forgritting? *Norsk Veterinær Tidsskrift*, XXVIII, 17, 1916.
- CAMPBELL, C. La caprengine nell'agricoltura meridionale. *Il Collettore*, LXI, 191-192, 1915.
- CANFARI, A. Economia dei foraggi. *L'Economia Rurale*, XXII, 501-506, 1915.
- ELGER. Value alimentaire delle foglie di alleri. *Rivista di Agricoltura*, XXI, 1948-1951, 1915.
- FENZI, E. O. Due piante da pastura per la Libia. *L'Agricoltura Coloniale*, IX, 1915.
- FRIEDLHAF, H. Die Nährwerterschliessung in Heu und Stroh und Pflanzenstollen. *Zeitschrift für Tierphysiologie*, 1915.
- FROMLING, O. Buchen-Vollma-A in Aussicht. *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, 50, 1915.
- GLYX & KRAUSE. Einige Bemerkungen zur Strohnährfrage. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschafts-Gesellschaft*, 23, 1915.
- GROUX, C. D. Pasta de curat-sina. (*Digitaris sanguinalis* Scop.), Planta monodile e nutritiva de las gramíneas. *Gaceta Rural*, IX, 231-232, 1915.
- GOLDSCHMIDT, H. Andet mærs forgringsforsøg med lucerne til mælkekvæg. *Ugeskrift for Landmænd*, LX, 102, 1915.
- GUTENBERG. Der Nährwert des Holzes. *Die Naturwissenschaften*, III, 198, 1915.
- HALL, H. M. & YATES, H. S. Stock Poisoning Plants of California. *College of Agriculture, Agricultural Experiment Station Berkeley, California, Bulletin*, 249, 219-247, 1915.
- HANSSON, N. Kottfruktstamens tillväxtstadierna och förvärtande. *Nordisk Skogstidskrift*, XX, 171-176, 1915.
- HARRIS. Alfalfa started in Cuba. *Commerce Reports*, 291, 1115, 1915.
- HEPNER, M. Die Vogelwicke (*Vicia Cracca*). *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, 55,

26. Einsäuerung von Futterstößen mit Berücksichtigung der Impfung. *Deutsches Landwirtschafsgesellschaft*, **33**, 1915.
27. Kõrtootsi to lervaeli. *Ugustav ja Läänemaa*, LX, 60-61, 1915.
28. Das Kraut unserer Hackfrüchte, das derzeitige beste Ersatzfutter für Wiesens-  
Futterstroh. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, **31**, 1915.
29. Die Bedeutung Deutschlands und Österreichs als Nahrungsmittel- und  
Futtermittel-Lieferanten.
30. Die Bedeutung und Durchführung der Laubbodenfrucht. *Mitteilungen der Deut-  
schen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, **28**, 1915.
31. Die Bedeutung des Viehhandels in der West von Überijssel. *Landbouw en  
Landbouwkunde*, VI, 42-43, 1915.
32. Zum Strohanschluss. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*,  
1915.
33. Die Aufschlüsselung von Stroh. *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, **33**, 1915.
34. Strohal-Kraftfutter? *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, **32**, 1915.
35. D. Die Bedeutung von Stroh und Heu für die Ernährung von Men-  
schen. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, **13**, 1911.
36. F. B. Alfaro y Gamillas, sus efectos en el cultivo de campo y en el ganado. *Boletín  
de la Rural Argentina*, I, 218-225, 1915.
37. A. RANADE, D. N. Notes on the Feeding Value of some Forest-stalks. *Indo-  
British J. Ag. Mar. Agr.*, VII, 25-32, 1914.
38. R. E. British Columbia, Whaling industry. *Canadian Review*, **134**, 1114, 1915.
39. Gleichzeitige Fütterungsversuche mit verschiedenen Heusorten von Nachschweinen,  
schwarzer, Marsch- und Mineralweiden. *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, **63**, 1915.
40. A. VANDER, v. Theorie und Praxis der Kartoffelkrautverwertung. *Mitteilungen der  
Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, **32**, 1915.
41. A. VANDERBEEK de mercurium con novos methodos de cultura en manduano no  
Cauarias e Quindias, XI, 122-127, 1915.
42. Los prelos de las algomolas. *Los Mochis*, XVI, 1-3, 1915.
43. Rohkollon samt Kastrungen sison heilmittel. *Zeitschrift der Läänemaa*, XXXVI,  
1915.
44. Kõrmas to lervaeli für mjõkkon. *Zeitschrift der Läänemaa*, XXXVI, 1-3, 1915.
45. Bedeutung der Leguminosen als Futterpflanzen, besonders in der Gernwinnt.  
*Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, **64**, 1916.
46. Entwicklung der Pflanzenzüchtung. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschafts-  
gesellschaft*, **40**, 1916.
47. Heumischel, seine Bedeutung für die Tierzucht und seine Herstellung. *Deutsche  
Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, **59**, 1915.
48. J. L. L. remolacha-fragata. *Revista de la Facultad de Agronomía (Cuba)*, XLIV,  
1915.
49. Les fenilles mortes et leur emploi. *Le Progrès Agricole*, XXIX, 1915, 1916.
50. Zur Frage der Kartoffelkrautverwertung. *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche  
Presse*, **63**, 1915.
51. R. H. Die Bewertung der eigenen Futtermittel aus Stroh und des Stalls-  
Futter. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, **35**, 1915.
52. W. P. FIELDS, Effect of Feeding Mineral Phosphate on Cows. *Mont. Jour.  
of Agricultural Journal*, CXIV, 145, 1914.
53. Die Verwendung von Heu. *Zeitschrift der Läänemaa*, XXXVI, 75-77, 1915.
54. Strohflut. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*, **37**, 1915.
55. Strohflutverwertung. *Mitteilungen der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft*,  
1915, 1915.
56. Anleitung zur Fütterung mit Heu. *Deutsches Landw.*, III, 1915, 1915.

- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Capim de Johnson. *Secretaria da Agricultura, Commercio e Industrias do Estado de São Paulo, Boletim de Agricultura*, XVI, 765-769, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Capim de Suilão. *Secretaria da Agricultura, Commercio e Industrias do Estado de São Paulo, Boletim de Agricultura*, XVI, 753-765, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Ensilage. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1913.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Fish as Cattle Food. *Agricultural Journal of India*, 1911.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Fish Meal and Fish Manure. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 688-694, 1914-1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Fuzze of Horse as Fodder. *Mark Lane Express Agricultural Journal*, CXIV, 1376, 171, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Landbougsærling, September-Oktober. *Dansk Land*, III, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Ljungen som Isolermedel. *Svenska Landtmännens Förenings Tidskrift*, 721-722, 1913.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Lucernemel som kraftfoder. *Ugeskrift for Landmaend*, LX, 61, 1913.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Lucernmjöl, ett nytt kraftfodermedel. *Tidskrift for Landman*, X, 692-701, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Nova granilnea torrageira. *A Estação*, III, 711-712, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Notes on the Purchase and Preparation of Food for Poultry and Allotments. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 623-627, 1914-15.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Some Minor Commercial Cattle Foods. *Mark Lane Express Agricultural Journal*, CXIV, 141, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. The Value of Acorns, Horse, Chestnuts, and Beech Mast for Stock. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXI, 511-528, 1914-1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. The Used Straw for Fodder. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 663-670, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Porsök med kakao-kakor. *Tidskrift for Landman*, XXXVI, 12, 1915.
- [VARIOUS FEEDS]. Sarnenti di vitai al bestiame. *Rivista di Agricultura*, XXI, 687, 1915.
- ROBERTSON, G. S. New Feeding Stuffs. *The Journal of the Board of Agriculture*, XXII, 1915.
- WOLK, P. C. v. d. Een en ander over de aanwaring van Katjang vogel (*Uraenochelone*). *Cultuur*, XXVII, 105-117, 1915.

## SECOND PART. ABSTRACTS

### AGRICULTURAL INTELLIGENCE

#### GENERAL INFORMATION.

**Oil of Citronella as a Preventive of Mosquito Bites.**—GIVEN D. H. C., in *The Journal of the Medical Association*, Vol. XXIV, No. 2, pp. 2781—2782, Chicago, February 1936.

RURAL  
HYGIENE

An account of the good results obtained by the use of oil of citronella (*Citron Nardus*) in protecting from mosquito bites the crew of a ship tied up at Hankow. About half a drachm or less in the palm of the hand is sufficient to anoint the feet, ankles, hands and face, and to render them immune for at least four hours, and often for the whole night. Citronella is very cheap if bought wholesale, although sold at 6d. an ounce retail. It lasted practically the whole summer and was used by nearly one on board.

**The First 50 Years of the Moscow Higher School of Agriculture.**—I. KATMAV, The Academy of Petrovskoié. The Agronomic Institute of Moscow, fifty years of its existence 1914. In *Sobremennye Voprosy*, Year LXXV, No. 56, CCXLIX, pp. 33—67; Petrograd, Nov. 1935. — I. MOROSOV, G., Tribute to the 50th anniversary of Petrovskoié, in *Land and Journal*, Year XLV, No. 56, pp. 1—11, Petrograd, 1935. — III. BROTSKI, W., The Academy of Petrovskoié. The Agronomic Institute of Moscow, *Zemledel'skaja Gazeta*, No. 4, pp. 12—16, Petrograd, November 21, 1935. — IV. PRASCHNIKOV, D., Degrees in Science, *Ibid.*, pp. 1279—1280. — V. JABINSKI, J. W., The Chair of Agronomy at the Academy of Petrovskoié, in *Sobremennye Voprosy*, Year LXXV, Vol. CCXLIX, pp. 108—127, Petrograd, 1935.

AGRICULTURE  
EDUCATION

The Higher School of Agriculture at Moscow is one of the oldest in Russia, the first of these institutions being founded in 1841 at Gori Gorkakhi in Government of Moghilefi.

Its importance and the influence which it has continuously exercised in the country justify its claim to be a "National Institution" comparable with the National Agronomic Institute of Paris, the National School of

Agriculture at Grignon and the Higher School of Agriculture at Paris, the scientific organization and the continued adaptation of its programme to modern necessities, are exemplified by the modifications introduced in the recent years in curricula and methods, which not only relate to the agricultural training in Russia, but also bear upon the most important educational problems now pressing for solution in almost every country.

The creation of the Higher School is due to the great reforms of the second half of the last century. It took place in 1865 at the time of the abolition of serfdom in Russia. The institution began its existence in an epoch of the great awakening of social energies, when agricultural conditions of rural Russia attracted the attention and activity of the people and the Government. The new School thus became by reason of circumstances at this epoch the intellectual centre of rural Russia. Its foundation owed its initiative to the Agricultural Association of 1862 and it met with such favour in ruling circles that in 1867 a decree was signed installing the school on the historic estate of Petrowskoe-Porokhowskoe, situated within a few miles of the ancient Capital. The estate cost some £27,000; it contained 714 desiatines (1 desiatine = 2.7 acres), of which 210 were under forest, 120 were arable lands, 68 under meadows, 65 under vegetable and ordinary gardens, 22 occupied by lakes, and remaining 217 by roads, buildings etc.

Since its foundation the Higher School has passed through three different periods.

During the *first period*, from 1865 to 1873, it bore the name of "School of Agriculture" and its avowed object was to spread useful knowledge in relation to agriculture and forestry. It was open to all who desired instruction in these subjects, no diploma of secondary education being required for admission. During this period, out of 1111 students, only 158 received a diploma of higher or secondary education. The normal period of study was 3 years, but students were allowed free choice of the course of study, permitted to settle for themselves the time during which they wished to study, and were not compelled to undergo any examination. Of the 1111, only 82 went through the complete curriculum. It is an interesting fact that of those who did pass through the full term, 77 per cent. devoted themselves afterwards to agriculture. So far the academy accomplished its object.

It was during this first period that there were laid and first developed the truly scientific foundations of higher agricultural education, based on a solid preparation in natural sciences during the first 2 years of study. The important courses in chemistry, physics, botany, plant physiology, anatomy, zoology, animal physiology, and agricultural chemistry, were organized by the leading professors of these sciences, and included some of the most eminent scientists. This tendency, which being weakened, gradually gathered strength and still constitutes the best and most characteristic traditions of the Higher School of Moscow.

The *second period* lasted from 1873 to 1880. In the new statutes of

of the academy was described as "scientific instruction in agriculture and forestry". At the same time, the academy was transformed into a school of Agriculture of the higher class, *i. e.* it was provided with a curriculum of studies obligatory on all students, with obligatory examinations. The length of the course of studies was 4 years and admission was limited to those students who possessed a qualification equivalent to that of secondary education institutions.

A positive element of the new statutes consisted in a better and more precise definition of the objects in view. Later on, there was a desire to give instruction a more practical orientation. Thus, in 1883, the authorities required that, in the special agricultural courses, instruction in natural sciences should preponderate, that experimental work should be increased, that instruction should be more practical, the Academy entering round the farm attached to the Academy itself. From the end of this year 1883, the students were required to carry out planning work during the summer vacations. Later on, in 1886, admission to the academy was made conditional on an apprenticeship in private agricultural undertaking.

*The third period* is the shortest and most unsettled in the School's existence.

In 1886, the statutes were modified and the Academy of Agriculture and Forestry became one of Agriculture alone.

However, it became impossible to apply the new statutes to a great extent in 1890, in consequence of political agitation, admission to the Academy was prohibited by the Government and for a time the school was unable to exist.

*The fourth period* began in 1894 and still continues. Some months after its closure, the Higher School of Agriculture of Moscow was reopened under the name of "The Agronomic Institute of Moscow". The object of the Institute, according to the new statutes, consisted in higher agricultural instruction and in the teaching of agricultural hydraulics. This last was a notable innovation. From the first years of its existence the Institute has endeavoured to accommodate itself to new requirements and had modified the instruction by enlarging the scope of existing courses, and introducing new courses of study. Thus, in 1914, a section of Ichthyology had been created with the object of serving as a basis for scientific instruction in culture (which is of enormous importance in Russia) and of preparing specialists in this branch of work. This new department is thoroughly staffed in all that concerns scientific material and teaching staff. There are 5 professors, besides 2 acting and 7 assistant professors.

The subjoined table, drawn up by Professor PRYANICHNIKOW, shows the development of the Institute as regards the teaching of natural sciences and compares the number of professorships in the University of Moscow with that in the Institute.

The above table shows that the Faculty of Natural Science (at the University) has only one chair of Agronomy while the Agronomic Institute has two, although its instruction in natural sciences is almost the same, and a much larger number of professors of agronomy.

Table showing Comparison between Number of Professorial Chairs in the University and in the Agronomic Institute of Moscow in Natural Sciences

|  | Faculty of Natural Sciences in University | Agronomic Institute of Moscow |                      |       |
|--|---|-------------------------------|----------------------|-------|
|  | Professors                                | Active Professors             | Assistant Professors | Total |
| <i>Natural sciences:</i> Physics, Meteorology, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, Mineralogy, Geology, Animal Physiology . . . . .                | 11  | 10                            | 3                    | 14    |
| <i>Agronomy I:</i> Agricultural Chemistry, Applied Geology, Plant Breeding, Silviculture and other branches of plant cultivation . . . . . | 4   | 6                             | —                    | 6     |
| <i>Agronomy II:</i> Stockbreeding and allied branches . . . . .  | 0   | 3                             | 3                    | 6     |
| <i>Agronomy III:</i> Economic bases of agriculture . . . . .   | 0   | 4                             | 1                    | 5     |
| <i>Usual school subjects:</i> . . . . .  | 1   | 2                             | —                    | 2     |
| <i>Mathematical sciences:</i> Pure mechanics, Theoretical and applied mechanics, Descriptive Geometry, Astronomy, Surveying, . . . . .     | 7   | 5                             | 4                    | 16    |
| <i>Rural Engineering:</i> Special courses . . . . .  | 0   | 6                             | 1                    | 7     |
| Total . . . . .  | 23  | 36                            | 9                    | 68    |

With regard to details of the Institute's organization, the system of instruction and obligatory examinations at determined dates is replaced by a system under which the student is permitted to choose the subject which he prefers to study. The methods of testing the knowledge acquired by students and their work are generally left to the discretion of the professors, who hold half-yearly examinations. The number of examinations for different groups of students depends on the section or branch of instruction selected by them. The students themselves are free to decide in what order the practical experiments in the laboratory or science rooms shall be conducted, and in what order the selection examination shall be taken, etc.

In view of the great awakening of agricultural activity which has taken place in Russia during the last 10 years, the number of students necessarily increased considerably. Whereas, formerly, the total number of students did not exceed 500, it now reaches 1500. Moreover, the number of students possessing a diploma of higher education, *viz.* in 1914 there were 280 and in 1915 there were 236.

The Institute received a new and very strong impetus in the last year during which M. A. W. KRIVOCHINE was at the head of the Ministry of Agriculture. Thus, in 1912, the number of professorial chairs was 100, so that while formerly there were only 21 professors and 10 assistants, there are now 50 professors, 9 acting professors, and 10 assistants. The expenses have risen from some £10,000 to over £21,000, and the expenditure on scientific material has increased from £3,000 to £4,000 per annum.

The law which empowered the Minister of Agriculture to open experimental stations at the higher schools of agriculture has contributed to the further scientific activity of the Institute. This law has permitted the opening to the Institute of a series of new experiment stations fully equipped and having in view not only educational objects but also scientific research of a general and local character. The following research stations are already at work: Plant breeding, Zootechny, Phytopathology, Agricultural Engineering, Flax Culture. In a short time there are to be experimental stations for agriculture and horticulture. The station has its own staff (77), one director with a good number of assistants.

Considerable grants are allowed to the experiment stations. Some of the funds fitted with a series of laboratories, museum collections etc. In 1912 over £10,000 was allotted to the stations. The former chairs of Botany and Zootechny are being similarly developed, with the creation of laboratories and the addition of a series of new professorial chairs. Sometime ago, the Institute proposed to reconstruct the Forestry School, and the Minister of Agriculture proposed adding two new branches of instruction to the Institute: 1) preparation of specialists; 2) for agricultural engineering; 3) for technical chemistry, manufacture of chemical products. These 2 branches of instruction are of exceptional importance for Russia. Suffice it to say that there have been discovered, in the basin of the river Volga, beds containing some 500 million tons of phosphorites; the use of chemical manures in the country is increasing yearly.

According to the figures furnished by Professor FORGNATOW, there have been turned out from the higher school of Moscow in the 50 years of its existence, 2,762 agriculturists and foresters (the latter numbering 1,000 of which number 1,179 have come from the Academy and 604 from the Institute).

An interesting feature of the students' life has been the growth of a real spirit of association. There are at the Institute many students' societies with very different aims and objects: 1) a relief fund to which gifts from old students may be also subscribed; 2) a student's Committee for the distribution of grants for study; 3) a reading club; 4) a library of books of general culture; 5) a publishing society; 6) a club of social work with a library and a committee to which is entrusted the distributing of residential quarters in the "zemstvo"; 7) a fishing club; 8) a forestry club; 9) a horticultural club; 10) a teachers' training club; 11) a photographic club, and so on. There are, moreover, district



societies of students which have for their aim the study of the climate and agricultural conditions of each district.

The agricultural school of Moscow has had a profound and beneficial influence and gained the esteem of all interested in the agriculture of Russia. An esteem, says KARAEV, founded on the fact that it has been practically an Agronomic University, always endeavoring to stick up to its scientific mission, and taking as its basis a solid preparation in natural history; counting among its professors some of the best scientists and striving to turn out students not only scientifically trained but also active agriculturists and good citizens.

### CROPS AND CULTIVATION.

274. The "Fredia" Dewmeter - ФРЕДИЯ, in *U. L'Espresso di Roma*, No. 13, 1910, p. 14 - (See *Illustrations*).

AGRICULTURAL  
METEOROLOGY

This is a new apparatus for measuring the fall of dew, designed by FREDIA of the Central Bureau of Meteorology, Rome. Its component parts (shown in the figure) are as follows. A Dewar receiver in the form of an open cup with a diameter of 11.28 cm, equal to a surface area of 100 cm<sup>2</sup> exposed to the atmosphere. The receiver is placed in a wooden box and supported on two pieces of wood which raise the cup into contact with the upper rim with the fixed annular covering of the wooden box. Against the wall of the box is a clockwork action, *d* which controls a lever mechanism, the spring being attached to a fixed rod *b*, whose upper extremity articulates with a lever having its fulcrum at *c*. The other end of the lever carries a pin which acts as a stop for a moveable circular cover of wood. The upper surface is pressed down by the end of the spring which can move on the pivot *g* to which its end is attached. The apparatus works in the following manner: when exposed in the open air, in order to obtain a measurement, the clockwork is wound up so that the spring attached to the lever mechanism is released exactly at sunrise; as a result, the stop on the lever mechanism ceases to act, this latter, pushed by the spring, moves on the pivot *g* until it completely covers the opening of the Dewar cup over which it fits exactly. In addition, the bevelled edge of the moveable cover fits exactly into the annular cover of the box, closing it tightly, thus preventing evaporation of the dew collected at the bottom of the cup. In case the measurement is not carried out at once. To carry out the measurement, the Dewar cup is uncovered by turning the circular cover to the normal position and a padded fitting is placed on the fixed circular cover of the box and its extremities fitted into split metal sockets. The tripod stand is fixed by the screw *m* whose milled head *n*, on turning, moves the micrometer screw ending in a point at its lower extremity. The circle round the head of the micrometer screw is divided into 50 equal parts and moves at a tangent to a millimetre scale *p*. One complete turn of the circle corresponds to a division of the scale and thus the movement of the screw can be measured to an approximate accuracy of 0.02 mm. Zero on the scale corresponds to the position where the point of the screw touches the bottom of the



If  $h$  equal the depth, and  $R$  the radius of the sphere whose area is occupied by the water, the volume of water can be calculated from the formula  $V = \pi h^2 (R - \frac{1}{3}h)$ . To see if the measuring apparatus is properly adjusted, turn the screw  $n$  till its point touches the bottom of the cup. The scale should be at zero.

To avoid the above formula and to simplify the calculations the apparatus is provided with tables showing the corresponding volume of water for each volume of  $h$ .

SOIL PHYSICS,  
CHEMISTRY  
AND  
MICROBIOLOGY

385 - The Displacement of the Potash and Phosphoric Acid Contained in Certain Rocks by Some Substances Used as Fertilizers. — ANDRÉ G., in *Comptes Rendus des Séances de l'Académie des Sciences*, Vol. 162, No. 3, pp. 133-136, Paris, 1916.

In a previous article (1) the writer has shown that the prolonged saturation, in the presence of distilled water, of a microcline felspar with different salts used as fertilisers and which are normally present in the soil, caused the liberation of a certain amount of the potash contained by the felspar. The nutritive solutions present in arable soil are derived from this double decomposition which is the more thorough the finer the division of the solid elements.

The writer has continued this study on glauconite (a hydrated silicate of iron and potassium) which varies considerably in composition according to its origin. The sample employed by the writer contained 10 per cent of potash. The samples of 10 gms. were ground and passed through sieve No 70, after which they were well pulverised for 120 hours in the presence of 1 gnl. by weight of different salts.

The results obtained are given in the following table:

| Salts added<br>In presence of water | Potash ( $K_2O$ ) yielded to solution |                                      |  |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
|                                     | grammes                               | in 100 parts by weight of glauconite | As percentage of total potassium in glauconite |
| None . . . . .                      | 0.0230                                | 0.23                                 | 3.21   |
| Calcium carbonate . . . . .         | 0.0462                                | 0.46                                 | 6.42   |
| Sodium chloride . . . . .           | 0.0398                                | 0.39                                 | 5.41   |
| Sodium nitrate . . . . .            | 0.0508                                | 0.50                                 | 7.1  |
| Ammonium sulphate . . . . .         | 0.0706                                | 0.70                                 | 9.7  |
| Calcium sulphate . . . . .          | 0.0394                                | 0.39                                 | 5.3  |

Considerable quantities of potash were thus set free, the amounts being comparable to those obtained from microcline felspar. The sodium chloride and especially the nitrate of sodium, had a stronger action in liberating

(1) See B. February 1914, No. 99.

the potash of the glauconite than upon that of the felspar. The same amount of felspar yielded, in the same time, only 3.25 and 3.21 per cent of the contained potash. The action of calcium carbonate is more decided upon glauconite than upon felspar. The potash liberated from felspar by the same agent only amounted to 2.38 per cent of the total potassium content. The same may be said of the action of calcium sulphate. A maximum potash displacement was obtained in the presence of ammonium sulphate, when it amounted to nearly 10 per cent of the total potash. Ammonium sulphate had given a similar result in the case of the felspar, the potash displaced was a little less (7.38 per cent). Thus the amount of potash dissolved out from very finely ground glauconite is larger than that obtained from felspar, and the part which this mineral may play as a potassic fertiliser is far from negligible.

In order to put the conclusions derived by this method on a broader basis, attention was next paid to apatite. The object was to ascertain the amount of phosphoric acid capable of being removed by double decomposition when powdered apatite is ground in the presence of water and certain soluble salts used as fertilisers. Apatite is considered to represent a form of phosphoric acid which can only be assimilated by plants with great difficulty, on account of its crystalline structure, hardness, and very slight solubility under the conditions under which it occurs in soil as a result of the disintegration of the primitive rocks.

Four experiments were made in each of which a powdered Ontario apatite (containing 39.33 per cent of phosphoric acid) was subjected to vigorous grinding for 1.34 hours in the presence of water and of 1 gm. by weight of the following substances: ammonium carbonate, sodium nitrate, potassium carbonate; these substances being chosen from the compounds met with in the soil. After grinding, the mixture was filtered, washed with distilled water and the filtrate examined for phosphoric acid. The result was five times in the case of the ammonium carbonate, although during grinding fresh additions were made of this salt, on account of its volatility. Similar results were also obtained with the nitrates although, according to certain workers, *precipitated* tricalcic phosphate should be slightly soluble in the presence of these salts. On the other hand, the potassium carbonate displaced a certain amount of phosphoric acid, 0.0179 gms.  $P_2O_5$  to 1 gm. of apatite, which corresponds to 0.35 per cent of the phosphoric acid present in the original material. This confirms the statement of some writers, who consider that potassium carbonate acts as a solvent for tricalcic phosphate in the soil. The addition to farmyard manure of a certain quantity of tricalcic phosphate has often been considered advisable, since the ammonium carbonate produced by the fermentation of manure has been regarded as capable of dissolving a small amount of phosphate. The experiment here described shows that scarcely any of the phosphate is thus dissolved, this is also in agreement with practical observation; the operation is consequently of little advantage to agriculture.

METHODS  
OF SOIL  
CULTIVATION

386 - **Improved Summer Fallowing.** HETIER, H. in *Comptes Rendus des Séances d'Agriculture de France*, Vol. II, Year 1916, No. 3. Paris, 1916.

M. HETIER reports upon a pamphlet by Count ALFRED DE PÉRIER, *La méthode de Culture JEAN*, which is the result of an enquiry ordered by the Union du Sud-est des syndicats agricoles on M. JEAN's method of farming which consists essentially in :

1. - Exclusive use of the cultivator or Canadian harrow, doing away with the plough.

2. - One-crop farming of cereals simply interrupted from time to time by a forage crop, thus obtaining extreme economy of equipment, reduction of teams and great saving of labour.

One bullock driver kept during the whole year and one for the period intervening between harvest and seeding time, together with some hands for threshing are all that are needed for 55 acres of cereals. M. JEAN at his estate of Bru, Commune of Cavanac near Carcassonne in the département of Aude, has successfully practised this system for the last 10 years.

As soon as the grain is cut and stooked, and before it is carted away the stubbles are immediately worked over with a cultivator so as to prevent loss of moisture by capillarity and to favour the aeration of the soil by promoting microbiological activity. Riding cultivators fitted with sharp teeth and levers for regulating the depth of work are used ; the first time a great depth need be attained, it is sufficient just to loosen the surface and form a dust mulch which will diminish capillarity and absorb any rain or dew which may fall, thus rendering easier the next dressing with the cultivator which is given 10 or 15 days after the first, and, where possible, across it, with larger triangular blades if the flexible spring teeth are not strong enough.

Every 10 or 15 days the cultivator is drawn over the fields, till seed time, each time increasing the depth of loosened soil by an inch or two, the soil being kept moist by the mulch will not demand much more power for the greater depths, while at the same time the whole field gets completely freed from weeds.

This system is especially recommended for regions in which a long period elapses within harvesting and sowing, such as the South-west of France.

MANURES  
AND  
MANURING

387 - **Green-Manuring in India** (1). - DOBBS A. C. in *Agricultural Research Bulletin* No. 36, 58 pp., VI Plates, 1 Diagram. Calcutta, 1915.

The use of vegetation of all kinds for manure (usually leaves and stems) collected and transported to the fields when it could not be turned in, has been perfectly familiar to Indian cultivators from time immemorial. Green-manuring (the turning in and burial of the crop in the soil upon which it has grown), however, though not unknown in the country, has not been nearly so widely distributed as it should have been.

(1) See B. February 1916, No. 147.

the attention of the Agricultural Department has long been turned to this important question, and as early as 1882, experiments were made in green-manuring at Cawnpore, followed by others at Nagpur, Ponnaiyaon, while dating from 1905, field experiments were carried out in almost every Province of India. Important laboratory experiments were made in Madras, Assam, and at Pusa. The above-mentioned Bulletin is a compilation of all the reports relating to this work, and of articles appearing in other publications, and serves as a general report of the results hitherto obtained. It also gives a short sketch of the work which is being done in this direction at Pusa, and at some of the most important experimental stations of some provincial centres.

The question of green-manuring in India presents special difficulties, owing partly to the climate, and partly to the economic conditions obtaining there. The drought that prevails for half the year over the greater part of India is succeeded by the hot damp period of the monsoon. The length of the dry season prevents the formation of permanent pastures of leguminosae and necessitates continual cultural operations, which as well known, exhaust the organic matter of the soil. During the monsoon, a peculiar luxuriance of vegetation is promoted which might be expected to offset the balance. That it does not do so, appears to be due principally to three causes :

1) The use for fuel (which is very scarce) of all spare organic matter, including cattle dung, and as much as is not required of the stems of such crops as occupy the ground for the whole of the monsoon season.

2) Insufficiency of rainfall in many districts, which precludes the profitable cultivation of both a full monsoon crop and a cold weather crop on the same land.

3) The growth, for food purposes, of crops like rice which yield a relatively small proportion of straw to grain, and while occupying the ground for only part of the monsoon, yet leave insufficient time, during the remainder, for a second crop to mature ; with the result that the ground is frequently left fallow or uncultivated.

In order for green-manuring to be advantageous, the crops used must not take the place of other crops of primary importance (forage, fuel) or interfere with the cultivation of main crops. The advantages of green-manuring depend, as a rule, upon the utilisation of a shorter or longer period of the monsoon during which the ground might otherwise be uncovered. In the various systems of green-manuring are conveniently classified according to the length of this period, that is, according to the time of sowing or planting the main crop for which the manuring is regarded as preparation.

1) Main crop *rice*, transplanted usually about six weeks after the monsoon showers.

2) Crops (like *lobacco* in Bihar) which are planted at the end of the monsoon, and the cultivation necessary for which precludes the maturing of a monsoon crop ; and valuable cold weather crops which require the com-

servation of a considerable part of the monsoon rainfall for the production of a full yield.

3) *Sugarcane, jute and garden crops* which are sown at the beginning of the hot season on un-irrigated land.

4) *Other crops grown on irrigated land* and which are thus to some extent independent of the monsoon.

*Rice.* - The most important recent development of green-manuring in India has been in connection with the rice crop. Experience has shown that the most economical way of growing rice and the method almost universally adopted in India, is to sow the seed in a seed bed and to transplant the seedlings in puddled land, when sufficient water has been accumulated. The interval between the first monsoon showers and the transplanting of seedlings can be profitably utilised for the growth of a green manure crop. Under favourable conditions, the seed of the latter can be sown even at the end of the preceding cold weather, and the young crop will survive the hot weather and be ready to take full advantage of the early part of the monsoon.

Plants which have been successfully used for green manure in different provinces are: *Crotalaria juncea*, *Phaseolus Mungo*, *Dolichos biflorus*, *Sesbania biflorus*, *Sesbania aculeata*, *Tephrosia purpurea*, *Melilotus alba*, *Lathyrus sativus*.

*Tobacco and valuable cold weather crops for un-irrigated land.* - Green-manuring for these crops differs from that in practice in connection with rice, from the fact that the manure cannot be puddled in, and therefore requires a long time to rot; on the other hand, there is a longer time available before the land is required. The green manure crop can be sown on the early rains in May and ploughed in as near July 15 as possible, the tobacco being transplanted 8 weeks later. The following plants have been used with good success for green manure: *Crotalaria juncea*, *Eleusine Cutjang*, *Sesbania aculeata* etc.

*Jute, Sugar Cane and Garden Crops.* - The growth of a crop for green manure is out of the question on typical jute land, but in parts of the Rampur, Pabna and Mymensingh districts, *Crotalaria juncea* is sown in October and ploughed in as green manure for the jute crop, though in many cases the stems and tops are removed for various purposes, and only the roots are left in the ground. As green manure for the sugar cane are chiefly used: *Tephrosia purpurea*, *Crotalaria juncea*, *Guizotia abyssinica*; for betel *Sesbania aculeata*; for ginger, the leaves of *nux-vomica* (*Strychnos Nuxvomica*) and those of *Phyllanthus Emblica*; for onions, garlic etc. *Crotalaria juncea*. In the Punjab, *Cyanopsis psoraloides* is used in addition to the latter plant.

*Irrigated Crops.* - The green-manuring crop (especially *Sesbania aculeata*) is grown during the warm season, while the principal crop is cultivated in the autumn-winter season.

**Seeds and Plants imported into United States, 1913.**—In *U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Plant Industry, Inventory No. 34*, pp. 547, Plates I-VI, and Nos. 35-36, Plates I-VIII, Washington, September-November 1913.

These inventories published periodically by the Bureau of Plant Industry at Washington are intended to form a complete record of the thousands of new and more or less valuable plants introduced into the United States.

The dangers from the introduction of plant diseases and the great expense of this work to private firms led the United States Government to undertake the responsibility of this work which concerns the general welfare of the nation.

Descriptive and bibliographical notes are appended to the various introductions and where possible, cultural observations from the place of origin.

**1.**—Nos. 34 728 to 35 135. The explorer in charge draws special attention to the following plants introduced during January 1 to March 31, 1913, from Mexico (*Persea americana* Miller), from Mexico:

No. 34 855 from San Pablo, Campeche, a thin-skinned fruit with small seeds; reputed to be of very superior quality.

No. 34 856 said to be the finest and largest fruits in Merida, a place noted for its fine peaches.

No. 34 831 from the Pincio gardens, Rome.

No. 35 121 from Caracas, Venezuela; yellow-skinned variety of very fine flavour; latitudes of 1400 metres with low rainfall.

**2.**—Nut tree (*Piratinera alicastrum*, Baillon)

No. 34876 from Merida, Mexico, branches used as fodder in dry season. Hardy ornamental shrubs suitable for the trying climates of the Great Plains.

**3.**—*Corylus*—*Coloneaster*—*Lonicera*—*Populus*—*Prunus*—*Tamarix*:

Nos. 34 784—34 805 from Novosibirsk, Russia.

**4.**—GRASS:

No. 34 807, *Poa pallens*, resembling Kentucky blue grass, from Buenos Aires.

No. 34 818, *Eragrostis superba* Pyritsch from South Africa. One of the best native pasture grasses on the high veldt 3500 to 5500 feet; common sandy soils in British Bechuanaland with rainfall not more than 10 inches.

**5.**—*rebaudiana* (Hemsley):

No. 34 883 from Paraguay; herbaceous perennial, leaves containing a glycerin many times sweeter than sugar.

**6.**—

No. 34 777 from Merida, Mexico, very large fruits.

No. 34 913, fruits of enormous size on trees 7 feet high; probably of value on account of high yield of papain.

**7.**—plum:

No. 34 851, *Prunus brigantia* from Nice, France.

No. 35 133, Chinese Yangtaw, *Adimidia chinensis*, female vine from Chelsea, London.



**Persimmon: (*Diospyros kaki*) from Okitsu Japan:**

No. 34 970. Fruit medium size, average weight  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lb., round and flat, firm, not very juicy, of very good quality after removal of astringency.

No. 34 971. Fruit medium large, more or less oblate; flesh fine, juicy, of very good quality when the astringency is removed.

No. 34 972. Fruit large, 1 lb or more, conical in form; flesh fine, tender, very juicy, more or less astringent at first, but very sweet when soft, suited for dried fruit.

No. 34 973, from Hiroshima Japan. This variety produces the best dried persimmons in Japan.

**"Sacred Ear Flower" (*Cymbopetalum penduliflorum* Baillon):**

No. 35 039, imported from Guatemala. Anomalous plant dried flowers used to flavour chocolate.

***Kerstingiella geocarpa*, Harms:**

No. 34 946 - 34 947, from Togoland, Africa. An edible bean which matures underground like the ground nut.

**"Olanamba" (undetermined):**

No. 34 943, an edible root from Angola used in place of potatoes.

**Kafir corn: *Holcus sorghum* L.**

No. 34 911, from selected seed, with large white grains and drought resistant.

**II. Nos. 35 136 to 35 666, introduced between April 1st and June 30th 1913.****Chinese Hawthorn (*Eralaeus pinnatifida*):**

No. 35 186 from Tsinan, Shantung, China: a large fruited variety, hardly and very resistant; fruit of good flavour and makes a unique preserve.

**Wild Pear (*Pyrus ussuriensis*):**

No. 35 391, from Harbin, Manchuria, probably the hardiest of the genus; fruits small and inedible; useful in breeding experiments.

**Grape hybrid (*Vitis amurensis* x *V. riparia*):**

No. 35 399, obtained by M. Mijurin, Kozlof, Tambof, Russia; fruits small, good flavour.

**Mountain Ash (*Sorbus aucuparia* L.):**

No. 35 395, from same source as preceding; fruits pleasant and sweet.

**Red currants (*Ribes* spp.):**

Nos. 35 398 and 35 399, from Krasnoyarsk, Siberia; very hardy.

**Hazelnut (*Corylus mandshurica*):**

No. 35 288, Maxim from Harbin, Manchuria, very resistant to cold and drought. Shells very thick and hard, kernels small. Useful in breeding experiments.

**Jujube (*Ziziphus jujuba* Miller):**

No. 35 253 from Luoding, Shantung, China: seedless or with soft edible kernel; ringed or girdled to increase the crop.

No. 35 255 - 35 661, The scarlet jujube; fruits the size of small eggs.

No. 35 419. *Ziziphus trimera* Poir. introduced as a stock for *Ziziphus jujuba* in the tropics.

(*Juglans regia sinensis*):

No. 35 017 to 35 017, 1 varieties from Shantung and Peking

25. *Cucumis melo* (L.):

No. 35 035 to 35 057 from Looing, Shantung; thirteen varieties of seed. A very sensitive to environmental changes. It is recommended that the first two fruits of selected seed be kept for seed.

26. "Tree" (*Citrinia tianspitata* (Car.) Burret):

No. 35 058 from Looing, Shantung; a small shrubby tree, leaves used for feeding silk. Time of maturity. Similar to Osage orange; suitable as a hedge plant; fruit sweet like apple.

27. *Solanum tuberosum*:

No. 35 060 to 35 501, 17 varieties from Chile and Peru, including several new forms and a tubed yellow potato of Peru.

28. *Cucur papaya*:

No. 35 081 to 35 086 from the Belgian Congo and Nos. 35 111 and 35 112 (*Cucur papaya* Hooker) from Nice, France; the mountain papaya.

29. *Luffia* spp.):

No. 35 203 to 35 206 from Bogorobeky Experiment Field, Kertsch, Russia; 4 species including *L. szechuensis*, *L. chirotrichoma*, *L. polystachya*, *L. chirotricha*, *L. szechuensis*, *L. chirotricha*, *L. montana*.

30. *Cucur* spp.):

No. 35 011 to 35 018, five species received from Alborg, Stockholm, including *H. alborgensis*, *H. alborgensis*, *H. alborgensis*, *H. alborgensis*, *H. alborgensis*.

31. *C. umbellifolia*:

No. 35 119 from Los Banos, Philippine; an edible form of the common Philippine tree-cucumber and potable; suitable for moist, hot countries.

32. *Mangifera* spp.): from Buitenzorg, Java.

No. 35 104 to 35 112 including *M. indica* Linn.

33. "Long-mut tree" (*Mida acuminata*):

No. 35 423 (*Mida acuminata* from Sydney, Australia).

34. Iron oak (*Pasania cornu* Oersted):

No. 35 326 (*Pasania cornu* Oersted) from Hongkong China; leaves edible.

35. Varieties (*Gossypium*):

No. 35 313 to 35 317, from Southern Nigeria.

36. *Orobrychia vulgaris*:

No. 35 318, from Siberia; suitable as late fodder in dry regions.

37. *Melirago (shada)*:

No. 35 311 from eastern Russia; 35 312 yellow flowered, improved, from Western Siberia.

38. Orange (Berm. Late):

No. 35 247 from Algiers; very sweet skin, exported from Murcia, Spain, during the summer.

**Medicinal Date (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.):**

No. 12, 1910 from Morocco.

**Raspberry (*Rubus biflorus quinqueflorus* Fock.):**

No. 17, 1917 from Soochow, China; golden yellow fruit of good flavor and fragrance.

**Tropical Melon (*Sisinnia coloriferia*):**

No. 19, 1919 from Tampico, Mexico; seedling of Shunko's collection.

**1909. Habitual Presence of a Micro-organism in the Roots of Crucifers.**  
M. L. F. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*, Vol. 2, No. 10, p. 175, 1909.

The writer records the presence of a micro-organism peculiar to Cruciferae living habitually on the roots and observed by him on roots of mustard, turnip and horse-radish. These micro-organisms are plentiful on the swellings which are often observed at the point where the secondary roots emerge. They are of the bacillary chain type.

Further experiments will be necessary to determine what the organism, which culture experiments have shown cannot be associated with *Phaenodiplhera*, has the faculty of fixing atmospheric nitrogen. So far, it has been demonstrated as belonging to the rhizomorph type, a hypothesis which is founded on the supposed capability of Cruciferae to fix atmospheric nitrogen and so explains their beneficial action on manures, is therefore not devoid of foundation.

**1910. Variations in Mineral Composition of Sap, Leaves and Stems of the Wild-grape Vine and Sugar-Maple Tree.** Smith O. M., Chemist, Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station in *Journal of Agricultural Research*, Vol. V, No. 1, pp. 32-42, 1910, D. C. December 20, 1910.

During the last three years, samples of the sap from the vine (*Vitis cordifolia*) have been collected and analysed to determine 1) whether the mineral composition of the sap varies in different parts of the vine at the same time; 2) whether it varies during a single season in the same part of the vine; and 3) whether it varies during different seasons.

The results of the analysis show that the water, calcium and potassium content of the sap are fairly constant when collected at two different parts at the same time during the same year, while the silica, iron, aluminum, phosphorus and chlorine are the large variable constituents depending upon the time and point of collection. More organic matter is found in the sap at a point on the main branch 20 feet from the root than is found closer to the ground or on new branches. The silica, iron, aluminum, calcium, magnesium and sulphur however, are found in greater quantities in the new branches, thus showing that the minerals accumulate in the leaves. Certain constituents, viz.: silica, iron, aluminum, potassium and phosphorus, may be about the same in the sap when collected from two different parts at the same time, but vary widely when collected the following season. A further point of interest is that while the content of lime to magnesia is fairly constant for different parts of the same vine, that of potash to soda is variable.

Examination of the sap at different times of the year shows a concentration of minerals towards the end of the sap flow, or when new develop, compared with the beginning of the new year. The order of magnitude of the variations in the various constituents is as follows: sodium, chlorine, iron, aluminium, silica, phosphorus, sulphur, magnesium and calcium.

Considerable variation in the mineral composition of the sap occurs over short periods of the day, an increase generally being found during the day and a more constant composition during the night.

The variations in the composition of the sap of the sugar maple tree have not been determined.

The mineral content of the sap was higher in 1914 than in 1913, the variations being with the sulphur and phosphorus. Comparing the mineral composition of the maple sugar with that of the water maple, large differences in mineral constituents were found, and the large variations in the mineral content of the lime and magnesia and potash to soda show that these differences are due simply to the dilution of the sap by water in the soil.

**The Effect of Heating Seeds upon the Development of the Plant.** Experiments made in Russia with Wheat. *—*MOISEWITS, S. J., *ARKH. KHIM. I FIZIK. NAUK*, 1915, 10, 81, Kiev, December 22, 1915.

The very limited number of observations regarding the action of different temperatures upon the plant previous to the vegetative period induced the author to undertake, at the Kiev Polytechnic Institute, experiments with the view of determining the effect of somewhat high temperatures, not upon the growing plant but upon the plant embryo. This heating was compared to the artificial drying of the plant while still in an embryonic condition.

The experiments were carried out in pots with seeds of hard wheat (*Triticum durum*). In one set of pots the "Amalotka" variety was sown (this seed commonly used was taken in this case; this is a mixture of three varieties), while in the remainder were planted seeds of a pure variety belonging to the "Kombanka" variety.

The amount of water given to the pots was 160 to 200 per cent of the amount required to saturate the soil. The seeds were subjected to heating for 20 minutes at a temperature of 80° C. The effect of heat upon germination of the "Amalotka" seed may be summarised as follows: Firstly speaking, the germination capacity is not diminished (68 per cent against 69 per cent), but in the case of the heated seeds, the maximum germination (40 per cent) occurs on the fourth day, while in that of the unheated seeds the maximum germination (37 per cent) is observed on sixth day. The seeds used were from the harvest of the preceding year. Determinations of the germination capacity of grain harvested 2 years previously gave very different figures; that of the unheated seeds being 60 per cent, and that of the heated 63 per cent. The germination capacity of the grain from a harvest spoiled by rain decreased still more, of the unheated 58 per cent, and of such a crop, 70 per cent germinated and of the heated seeds 70 per cent. High temperatures, therefore, have a distinctly injurious effect upon

the embryos of old and spoilt grain, while they do no harm to grain sown in normal weather.

The numerical results of these experiments are summarised in the appended table.

As regards the experiments with the variety "Arnaoutka" being a pure line, the results are too variable for any definite conclusion to be drawn. This shows once more the necessity for using seeds from pure lines in experiments of this kind.

In the case of the pure line, on the contrary, the difference in the yield from similarly treated pots is very slight, never exceeding 1 per cent.

A tendency towards increased yield is observed in the case of grain grown from heated seed, whatever may be the degree of the drought of the soil. It is interesting to note that heating the seeds gave the best results where the soil received the smallest amount of water. Thus, with the same total yield (10.52 gms.) the pots sown with heated seed (No. 11) produced 7.12 gms. of grain, while the plants grown under similar conditions, but from unheated seed, produced only 6.37 gms. of grain. It is seen, on comparing other data, that heating increased the yield as much as with 20 per cent of the total amount of water required for the saturation of the soil, 11.70 per cent; with 40 per cent of this amount, 8.22 per cent; with 60 per cent, 5.1 per cent. It results from these figures that, when the plants receive a large amount of water, heating the seed produces a sowing only increases the yield to an insignificant extent, and vice versa.

It may be taken that this increase is due to the fact that plants sown from heated seeds, and which have grown without the necessary amount of water, undergo some kind of structural modification; they are 7 mm. high only 710 mm. against 818 mm. for plants from unheated seed (Nos. 11 and 12), while those of the second weigh 32.9 per cent (pots 11 and 6). The plants grown from unheated seed, having more leaves per seed, less seed (both as regards absolute weight and relatively to the weight of the seed); the assimilating apparatus of these plants, being less perfect, would be less productive. In support of this hypothesis, a table is appended embodying the results of research on leaf anatomy. These show that heating seeds occasions the formation of tissues with smaller cells, the length of the stomata and the dimensions of the mesophyll cells, and lower values in the case of plants obtained from heated seed, and under conditions where soil humidity is 40 per cent and 20 per cent of total saturation; great humidity of the soil (60 per cent), equalises the qualitative characteristics of the tissues.

The writer concludes that heating has a great stimulating effect on the embryo and promotes in the plant a tendency to xerophytic structure; this is shown in its reduced height, in the decrease in the total weight of the leaves and in the dimensions of the cells. Seeing that xerophilous plants best withstand want of water, it can be considered that in places where water is abundant, heating the seed produces no marked



tion in the structure of the plant, while where water is somewhat plentiful heated seeds produce plants with modified structure for the purpose of enabling them to withstand drought.

312. **Hourly Transpiration on Clear Days as Determined by Cyclic Environmental Factors**—BROOKS, L. T. and SHANLEY, H. L. Biophysicist and Plant Physiologist of Plant Industry, in *Journal of Agricultural Research*, Vol. XV, No. 1, 1916, pp. 1-8. VII. 1147. Washington, D. C., January 3, 1916.

These transpiration experiments were carried out at Akron, Col., during the years 1912-1914, with a view to determining, as far as possible, the relative effects of various environmental factors on the transpiration of different plants. The plants, which included wheat, oats, rye, sorghum, alfalfa and amaranth, thus, were grown in large scaled pots of the type used in water requiring experiments (1). The environmental factors were recorded in terms of solar radiation, air temperature, depression of wet-bulb thermometer evaporation from free water surface and wind velocity.

The transpiration curves of the various plants may be grouped into two classes: 1) those showing a flattening of the curve in the forenoon, accompanied by corresponding changes in the environmental factors, and, 2) those showing no such change. The cereals belong to the former group, and the forage plants and amaranth belong to the latter.

The change in the transpiration curve of the cereals appears to be due to some change in the plant resulting in a reduction in the transpiration rate below what would be expected from the form of the curve during the early hours of the morning. The hourly transpiration rate of the cereals on clear days increased steadily, though not uniformly, from sunrise to a maximum value which was reached between 2 and 4 p. m., after which it fell rapidly to the night level. The transpiration graphs for sorghum, alfalfa and amaranth were somewhat more symmetrical with respect to midday, reaching their maximum between noon and 2 p. m., after which they fell approximately with the radiation.

During the night, transpiration at Akron is very low, being only 3 to 5 per cent of the transpiration during the day light hours. The radiation intensity rises in advance of the transpiration when the values are expressed as percentages of the maximum and falls either in advance of the transpiration, or with it, according to the plant considered. Radiation is therefore to be looked upon as the primary causative factor in the cyclic changes.

The transpiration graphs usually rise and always fall in advance of temperature.

Computation of the correlation coefficients between transpiration and the various environmental factors show the radiation, air temperature and wet-bulb depression to be correlated with transpiration approximately to the same degree, the figures being:

|                                 |              |
|---------------------------------|--------------|
| radiation coefficient           | 0.82 to 0.89 |
| temperature                     | 0.77 to 0.86 |
| wet-bulb depression coefficient | 0.75 to 0.85 |

The squares of the coefficients indicate the amounts of transpiration caused by the several factors. This radiation determines the transpiration to the extent of from 0.67 to 0.77. The remainder 0.33 to 0.23 is ascribed to other factors and since the squares of the coefficients for these factors exceed this amount, it follows that these factors are also intercorrelated with the radiation. This conclusion is supported by the much lower evaporation coefficients for temperature and wet-bulb depression obtained during the night when radiation is nil.

Though the observed and estimated evaporation rates are in satisfactory agreement this is not the case with transpiration, the value as estimated by the method of least squares being greater than that actually observed. This indicates that the plant undergoes changes during the day to modify its transpiration rate. These results therefore support the opinions of other workers that plants under conditions favouring high evaporation do not respond wholly as free evaporating systems, even if freely supplied with water and no visible wilting occurs.

#### Carbohydrate Transformations in Sweet Potatoes

By H. H. HAWKINS, L. A. Plant Physiologists, Fermentation Investigations, Bureau of Plant Industry in *Journal of Agricultural Research*, Vol. V, No. 11, pp. 117-125, Washington, D. C., December 27, 1916.

It has previously been noted that the sugar content of sweet potatoes is comparatively low while they are in the ground, but that immediately after the roots are harvested, there is a transformation of starch into sugar which takes place more rapidly at that time than at subsequent periods. This sugar formation thus appears to be a phase of the carbohydrate metabolism of the sweet potato which is initiated under certain special conditions.

Experiments have therefore been carried out to investigate this process carefully. Determinations were made of the carbohydrate transformations which take place during a period of 10 or 12 days immediately after unearthing potatoes and at a second subsequent period. The potatoes were kept at temperatures of 30°, 15.5° and 5° C.

The rate of starch conversion was found to vary with the temperature. At 15.5° to 30° the process soon approaches its maximum. The total accumulation of cane sugar varies with the temperature, being very small at 30° during the first 10 days, then rapidly diminishing. At 5°, little cane sugar is produced during the first 10 days, but the rate of accumulation subsequently increases rapidly. The formation of reducing sugar at 30° is sufficiently rapid to provide all that is used in respiration and allow a considerable accumulation, but less than that at 5°. At the lower temperature there is a marked accumulation of reducing sugar at first which may be followed by a slight subsequent loss. The diminution in the production of reducing sugar during the second period at 5°, notwithstanding the continued conversion of starch, and the large increase in cane sugar during this period, suggests that the excess of reducing sugar is converted into cane

1. See *B. March 1916*, No. 252.



sugar. Also, the concentration of reducing sugar always remains comparatively low, even at low temperatures when respiration is at a minimum. It appears therefore, that with the exception of the sugar used for respiration, the reducing sugar is transformed into cane sugar as fast as it is formed from starch. Probably the series of reactions is reversible and the final equilibrium between the starch, reducing sugar and cane sugar depends on the temperature, with the effect that at higher temperatures the system permits a greater concentration of sugar. This would also account for the rapid transfer of sugar immediately after lifting the roots.

The initiation of this transformation coincides with the cessation of the flow of reserve materials from the leaves and occurs in potatoes in the ground after the haulm has been cut. It is therefore concluded that the activity of the haulm inhibits the conversion of starch to sugar in the ing sweet potato.

- 204 **Inheritance of Length of Pod in Certain Crosses.** by BETTING JONES, Botanist, Florida Agricultural Experiment Station. In *Journal of Agriculture*, Vol. V, No. 10, pp. 405-420, Washington, D. C., December 6, 1918.

The Florida velvet bean (*Stizolobium decringtanum*) and the velvet bean (*S. nitrosum*) have one main genetic difference affecting pod length and this genetic difference segregates in genetic fashion. It is a dominant and acts as a multiplier with a value of about 1.52. There are also minor factors for pod length which also act as multipliers with a combined multiplying value (when double) of about 1.42.

- 205 **New Varieties of Plants on Sale** by Vilmorin Andrieux. Paris. 1918. In *Journal de l'Agriculture française*, Year 80, No. 2, pp. 42-43, (Paris, France).

Among the new varieties of plants for cultivation placed on the market by VILMORIN-ANDRIEUX of Paris, the writer draws special attention to the three following:

1) *Very early black hybrid oat*. This interesting spring variety was obtained some 10 years ago at Verrières by crossing the Australian oat the Jonnetts oat; it has recently been subjected to rigorous selection and is now well fixed. Height 3 to 4 feet, according to conditions of cultivation. It is vigorous and stools well. The panicles are well filled, the spikelets contain 2 or 3 grains, slightly bearded. When sown at the beginning of March, it comes into ear early in June and ripens about the 20th of July, i. e. 8-10 days before the earliest varieties. It thus has three qualities: extreme precocity, abundant yield, resistance to rust and lodging.

2) *Jerusalem artichoke*, obtained in the Verrière experiment. A robust variety doing well in poor soils, except in those which are impervious or too wet. The tubers, which are tinged with rose and regular in shape, do not freeze in the ground and so can remain and be first required. They can be used as food for man or beast.

3) *Chicory* (*Chicorée à café*). A vigorous plant, leaf entire, roots somewhat flattened, very regular in shape, 10 to 12 inches in length.

of low content of dry matter and very pure, thanks to the high content of carbohydrates and slight quantity of inorganic matter. It offers the double advantage of a high yield and small fuel requirement for preparation.

**Plant Breeding in Cuba.** EARLE D. S. and FOREMAN WILSON, in *Evolution of Agriculture*, Vol. XLN, 12 pp. 355-368, McGraw-Hill, Washington, D. C., 1928.

Plant breeding in Cuba was begun in 1901, the year in which one of the authors was called to the island to organise the Government Agricultural Experiment Station at Santiago de las Vegas.

Naturally enough, the most important cultures were the first to receive attention. The testing of seedling sugar canes has been carried on for the past ten or twelve years at the Harvard Experiment Station, at Sagua near Cienfuegos. As the soils of the Soledad district do not give satisfactory results with chemical fertilisers, and stable manure is out of the question, the problem to be solved was the production of a sugarcane giving a good yield even in exhausted soil. A satisfactory solution has been found. In addition to the production of seedling canes which will maintain a profitable yield on poor soils, an effort has been made to obtain by means of selection, strains which will be resistant to root rot, a disease supposed to be caused by *Marasmius sacchari*. On virgin timber lands, in which canes will often continue to give profitable results for twenty or twenty-five years without replanting; after this the plants die out, and must be replanted every third or fourth year. The cane usually begins to die in certain spots in the field where the growth is weakest and the disease develops in concentric circles. Always, however, occasional stools survive in these diseased areas; an attempt has been made to obtain from these, by selection, some immune strains of the "Cristalina" cane, which is so satisfactory in Cuba from most other points of view. Unfortunately, the work was dropped before any results were obtained, but the question is one that promises to yield most valuable results.

Cuba offers a large field of work for the selection of tropical fruits. At present, there is no vine suited to hot climates, though some south European varieties are occasionally grown in Cuba with some degree of success. There is a native species, *Vitis caribaea* which, even in a wild state, produces juicy fine grapes about 1/8 in. in diameter, dark purple in colour, and might through hybridisation with some of the cultivated grapes give rise to a race which would be of the greatest value to tropical regions. Other, from its productiveness and vigour (this vine sometimes covers trees 18 or 20 ft high) it would form an excellent stock for grafting.

In the mountains of Cuba, there is a walnut tree, *Juglans insularis*, producing nuts which compare favourably in size with the northern black walnut. The kernels are, however, difficult to remove from the shell and the partitions are thick. Through selection, this tree might be considerably improved and might be also of great value as a stock on which to graft other walnuts (for there are very few nuts that succeed in the tropics). The Queensland Nut, *Macadamia ternstroemia*, which has been introduced at Santiago de las Vegas has succeeded very well.

In all parts of Cuba, the mango is one of the most abundant of fruits.

There are two distinct races, *mango* and *manga*. The former is a tall tree sometimes 60 ft. high; its fruit is beaked at the apex and then rounding the seed is long and coarse. The *manga* is a low spreading tree or 40 ft. high, with more abundant but finer fibre. Two principal types of the *manga* race are distinguished and these are called, from the colour of the flesh of the fruit, the *manga amarilla* (yellow) and the *manga blanca* (white). There are also other races and types of mangos, the *Filipino* with very little fibre and of excellent flavour; the *Chino* and *manga* of the Cienfuegos and the *Biscochudo* of Santiago de Cuba; the last is very limited in distribution, but very superior in quality. The most important work in mango improvement yet done in Cuba consists in the selection and propagation of some of these superior types. The mango seedling reproduces the type perfectly.

In order to improve the *avocado* (*Persea gratissima*), budded seedlings of selected varieties have been imported to Cuba from Florida. In Cuba a few selections have been made, but the work is only just begun. The most important point in the selection of varieties is lateness of ripening; and throughout the island are found occasional seedling trees which hold their fruit all the winter.

For the improvement of the *anón* (*Annona squamosa*) the writer has been busy crossing *Annona Cherimolia* with *A. squamosa* and *A. muricata*.

In Cuba, citrus fruits were formerly grown almost exclusively from seed. The Government Experiment Station at Santiago de las Vegas is doing the work of searching out and propagating desirable seedlings which are found growing half wild in neglected gardens and hedgerows.

Many of the most important tropical vegetables grown in Cuba, *Dioscorea Batatas*, *D. sativa*, *D. aculeata*, *Coleocasia*, and *Manihot pilissaca*, are propagated asexually; the opportunity for selection is not lacking, even, since, but variation is much more common in the tropics than in temperate regions. DR. JUAN T. RUIZ has collected over 80 varieties of sweet potatoes from different parts of the island, and is now determining the relative nutritive value of each.

During the early years of the Agricultural Station at Santiago de las Vegas, a great number of varieties of maize from all parts of the United States and Mexico were tested, but none proved to be well adapted to Cuban conditions. The common variety cultivated in the island was usually of a yellow flint type; the ears are unusually heavily protected by husks that completely close at the tip, and the husks, leaves and sheath are tomentose; this seems to protect the young leaves from the attacks of numerous small insects which are always seen working about them. The heavy husks protect the ears from the attacks of the corn weevil in the next planting season. The absence of glabrous varieties is apparently due to the work of small insects. Some of the dent maize imported into Cuba has occasionally been planted and has fertilised plants of the flint variety, giving rise to acclimatised hybrids. At the Santiago de las Vegas Experiment Station, they have begun to select the best of these, in the hope of fixing a type with long ears enclosed in heavy husks.

**Testing of Agricultural Seeds in South Australia.**—ANDREW K. WILKINSON.

*Journal of Agriculture in South Australia*, Vol. XIX, No. 3, pp. 271-283, 1915, 12 pp., 12 figs.

Under the Federal Quarantine Act, the introduction into the Commonwealth of seeds or plants of over 140 species of noxious weeds is absolutely prohibited. Under the Federal Commerce Act, seeds imported must be genuine, and sound, fresh and clean, although no standard has so far been set up and discretion is allowed the customs as to what constitutes genuineness in this respect.

In the case of South Australia, samples of all agricultural seeds imported from abroad are taken at Port Adelaide, the Outer Harbour and the General Post Office Adelaide, by officers of this Department acting as Quarantine officers for plants, and submitted to another officer in this office who examines them to see what weed seeds they contain, and the quality of consignment is gauged after germination tests have been made. If any doubt exists as to whether they are suitable seeds to admit into the State, the Chief Quarantine officer for Plants for South Australia exercises the powers conferred upon him under these Acts, and issues instructions for the goods to be freed (where practicable) of impurities, or to be destroyed, or returned, to the country of origin.

The results of purity tests are not given (as in most seed laboratories) as percentage of impurities, but the method adopted is the same as that used in Canada; the number of weeds per unit weight of sample being determined.

The germination tests are made in duplicate (two lots of 100 seeds

**Experiments on the Germination of Seeds of Gramineæ.**—R. K. SCHUBERT.  
*Zeitschrift für Landwirtschaft*, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 285-312, Berlin, February 1915, 27 pp.

Experiments on 14 species of grasses to determine the optimum conditions for germination.

In order to study the influence of temperature on germination, the seeds were kept in darkness and exposed to constant temperatures of 20° or 30° C., and also to temperatures varying during the course of germination from 20° to 30° C.

In order to study the influence of light at a constant temperature of 20° C. the seeds were placed in a thermostat, one of the sides of which was black. The experiments all being made in winter, the influence of the daylight was only of secondary importance, but the value of the results not diminished thereby.

The seeds were placed either on or between moist blotting paper, or in porous earthenware dishes saturated with water. The water was renewed every two days, to replace that lost by evaporation.

For each species, 4 lots of 100 seeds were taken, except in the case of *Phleophrassus* and *Holcus pratensis*, where it is difficult to distinguish between good and bad seeds, consequently for these two species a given lot of seeds was employed. Altogether some 45,000 seeds were tested.

The following were shown to be the optimum conditions:

| Species                          | Medium and conditions of germination                                   | Temperature                         | Date on which maximum number of seeds germinated | % germinated |
|----------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|--------------|
| <i>Pitheum protense</i> (L.)     | Between blotting paper in presence of light                            | Constant, 20°C                      | 4th day  | 100          |
| <i>Dactylis glomerata</i> (L.)   | Between blotting paper   | Variable, 20-30°C                   | 5th  | 100          |
| <i>Avena sativa</i> (L.)         | "  | "                                   | 1st  | 100          |
| <i>Holcus lanatus</i> (L.)       | "  | "                                   | 6th  | 100          |
| <i>Cynodon dactylon</i>          | On blotting paper in presence of light                                 | Constant, 20°C                      | 10th   | 100          |
| <i>Briza media</i>               | Between blotting paper in presence of light                            | "                                   | 5th  | 100          |
| <i>Agrostis setacea</i> (L.)     | On blotting paper in presence of light                                 | "                                   | 4th  | 100          |
| <i>Lolium dactylon</i>           | Earthenware dishes in presence of light                                | "                                   | 5th  | 100          |
| <i>Lolium perenne</i> (L.)       | Between blotting paper or in earthenware dishes                        | "                                   | "  | 100          |
| <i>Alopecurus pratensis</i> (L.) | Between blotting paper   | Variable, 20-30°C                   | 7th  | 100          |
| <i>Alopecurus pratensis</i>      | a) On blotting paper in presence of light<br>b) Between blotting paper | Constant, 20°C<br>Variable, 20-30°C | 7th  | 100          |
| <i>Festuca pratensis</i> (L.)    | a) Earthenware dishes<br>b) Between blotting paper                     | Constant, 20°C<br>Variable, 20-30°C | 4th  | 100          |
| <i>Festuca ovina</i> (L.)        | On blotting paper in presence of light                                 | Constant, 20°C                      | 7th  | 100          |
| <i>Poa pratensis</i> (L.)        | Earthenware dishes in presence of light                                | "                                   | 10th   | 100          |

The results are compared with those of other workers, and the following conclusions drawn:

1) Blotting paper is the best medium for the germination of Gramineae.

2) Contrary to the opinion of NORBE, light is absolutely indispensable to the germination of certain species.

3) A change of temperature from 20° to 30° C. (20° for 18 hours, 30° for 6 hours) has proved favourable in many cases.

4) A constant temperature of 20° C., with absence of light is suitable to very few species.

A constant temperature of 30° C. is unfavourable to most species, but in the case of several species, the germinating faculty should be studied under different sets of conditions.

**"Lencino" Rice in Italy.** NOVATI N. in *Il Cultivatore*, 1902, Year VI, No. 1, p. 1.

"Lencino" rice had a more important position in Italy before the introduction of "Chinese ordinario" but it has still a considerable importance in the regions, Mantua, Venice etc. It does not do well in all soils, requiring deep lands, very little permeable, rich and somewhat clayey, on favourable conditions it gives excellent returns. Although now cultivated for a considerable time, it has not degenerated and retains its primitive character fairly well. It is vigorous in habit, fairly tall, stools well, and has fine panicles of length; high yield. It is very resistant to disease but liable to lodge. Ripens somewhat late but with selection, a sub-race has proved to be a "hard" variety, i.e. very resistant to hail, or to loss of grains during time. It consequently requires vigorous threshing. It is much valued in commerce because it is easily glazed and has a fairly transparent grain. It is a kind deserving notice as it can probably be improved or by proper selection.

**The Milling of Rice and its Effect upon the Grain.** See No. 144 of this volume.

**The Cultivation of Cotton in Greece.** *Travaux de l'Institut Agronomique de Serres*, 1902, Volume, VIIIth Year, No. 1, pp. 17-22, 1902, Athens, 1902.

The following is an abstract of an analytical study of different types (not indigenous, American, and Egyptian, grown at the Experimental Serres (Macedonia).

Egyptian cottons did not prove satisfactory, turning out far from giving much waste, and a weak fibre. Its culture is to 10 to 15 per cent less than that grown in Egypt, with a loss in ginning 50 to 70 per cent on that average.

The "Chindako" is better, having a greater purity, but is 15 to 20 per cent inferior to the Egyptian Mifihoun.

The American varieties "Cleveland Big Boll" and "Russels Big Boll" are all others in output and strength of fibre.

Other American varieties named by the writer are of similar value, to that of American middling.

The general conclusion is unfavourable to Egyptian cottons, but hope that, with suitable cultivation, cottons of commercial value can be obtained in Macedonia.

**Cotton Hybridisation at the Botanic Gardens, British Guiana.** THOMPSON, J. B. and BRANCKHOFF, C. K. in *The Journal of the Botanical Association of British Guiana*, Vol. VIII, 1902, pp. 143-150. Demerara, September, 1902.

Numerous experiments made since 1902 on the cultivation of Sea Island cotton demonstrated that owing to the unsuitability of the heavy soil and meteorological conditions, this crop is unsuitable for the coastal region

of Guiana. The most favourable season produced a crop of only 100 lb. of seed cotton per acre. Some promising results were at first obtained in the seed selection of Egyptian cottons, but it was evident, as the result of various trials, that the different varieties would not yield lint in sufficient quantity to enable them to be grown at a profit. All the varieties, except the Buck, were found to be very susceptible to the diseases, especially among cotton plants, more especially to anthracnose and to cottony rot.

As the result of these trials, efforts were directed towards raising a cross between the Sea Island and the native Buck cotton, with the object of combining the vigor and perennial habit of the latter with the quality of the lint of the former. These crosses have been bred to the 4th generation, in which 24 plants have been finally selected for the development of new strains.

Ten of these strains and specimens of two hybrids have been sent to the Imperial Institute for valuation and report. This report states that the object of the experiments has been attained and it will be necessary to learn how the yields and hardness of these long-stapled hybrids compare with those of the indigenous Buck variety.

The brokers' valuation of the lint from the different hybrids varied from 11d. to 14d. per lb. with the best Barbados Sea Island at 14d.

1913 — **Steps Taken to Preserve *Kokia Rocki*, a Wild Relative of the Cultivated Cotton Plant in Hawaii.** — YOUNG, ROBERT A., Chief of Foreign Seed and Plant Introduction of Plant Industry in *The Journal of Research*, Vol. XVI, No. 1, pp. 1-22. (Washington, January, 1919).

The rise of the science of genetics has given breeders a keen regard for the value of the wild relatives of important cultivated plants, and the former may be of no economic importance. This is the case as regards a tree growing wild on Hawaii, and called "kokio" by the natives. *Gossypium dryarioides* by SEEHAN, and *Kokia Rocki* by LAWSON. This tree was threatened with absolute extinction and was only saved by the efforts of the Office of Foreign Seed and Plant Introduction of the United States Department of Agriculture. The writer states that about 80 per cent of the native flora of the Hawaiian Islands is endemic and that it is of the greatest importance that these species should be preserved. Some "kokio" trees were found at Punwaawaa, in the island of Hawaii, on a bed of lava at a height of about 2700 ft. The average annual height was 29 in. or less.

*Gossypium dryarioides* reaches a height of from 12 to 25 ft. It produces large brick-red flowers, each of which gives rise to a seed bearing several seeds covered with short reddish hair. The natives do not use the cotton, but strip the trees of their bark which they use for dyestuffs; the colour of the strip is reddish and is waterproof.

1914 — **A Promising Coconut Clearing in Malaya.** — BROWN, L. C., (Late Inspector of Coconuts, F. M. S.) in *The Agricultural Bulletin of the Federated Malay States*, Vol. No. 12, pp. 145-149. Kuala Lumpur, September 1915.

The following is a brief history of some seed coconuts planted on an estate in Malaya in 1912.

60,000 nuts were purchased at a price of £7-12 s.; half of them

the nursery in May and the other half in June. The number germinated was 3,000 or 88 per cent. The seedlings were planted out from November 12 to January 31, 1913, on 11.4 acres of a free clay loam containing 1 per cent of lime. At the time of planting, the shoots were from 8 to 18 inches long. At the end of the first year averaged about 12 feet. The first wood at the base was formed at the age of 1 year 10 months and the first flowering (opened buds) appeared at 2 years and 5 months. The growth of the trees was very even and the average height at this stage was 20 feet and average diameter 7 inches. The height of the wood at the base was 18 inches and the greatest number of rings (leaf scars) was 12. At the age of 3 years, the largest nuts were 4 inches long.

Thus, these coconut palms came into flower in the record time of 2 1/2 years from the time of planting the seedlings and bore nuts at the age of three years.

The writer attributes this remarkable growth to the care taken during the initial period in the life of the palms, viz., from germination to the third year and particularly at the time of planting out.

**Production of Manna by Olive Trees in Algeria.** BAUMBER J. A., *Journal of Commerce*, No. 4, p. 108, Paris, February 20, 1916.

In 1901 an abundant production of manna by olive trees was recorded by the present writer. This rare phenomenon was again observed, towards the end of 1915, by M. DE PEYERIMHOFF, Inspector of Forests, Director of the Forestry Station of Algiers. In this latter case it appeared on the trunks of olive trees attacked by the larvae of *Cossus*, which bored out a number of galleries in the wood. The manna was particularly abundant and huge stalactites hung from the whole length of the trunk.

M. DE PEYERIMHOFF thinks the rarity of the occurrence is due to the fact that *Cossus* only very seldom attacks olives.

Experiments have been begun in order to attempt to induce this phenomenon at will, which, if successful will be of considerable practical importance.

**On the Coagulation of *Hevea* Latex and a New Method of Coagulation.** LAYTON J. B. and GRANTHAM J., in *The Agricultural Industries of the Federated Malay States*, Vol. IV, No. 2, pp. 20-30, Kuala Lumpur, November 1915.

When latex is allowed to coagulate spontaneously in open vessels, a peripheral lime or yellow scum forms on the surface. This surface scum is alkaline in action while the serum below is acid, thus showing two distinct processes of decomposition viz.: an alkaline aerobic process and an acid anaerobic process. This latter is the basis of a potent anaerobic process of coagulation in which the latex is allowed to coagulate in tall cylinders so as to reduce the amount of aerobic decomposition.

Latex sterilised in an autoclave at 140°-150°C. remained uncoagulated for several days under sterile conditions, but on exposure to air or after coagulation with a little fresh latex, coagulation set in after 24 hours, showing that coagulation is dependent upon bacterial decomposition.



Latex heated to 60°-100°C. and kept under sterile conditions coagulated spontaneously without putrefactive change, the serum becoming acid. Putrefaction, however, sets in later.

The writers conclude from these results that coagulation is due not to an enzyme but to bacterial action of a non-putrefactive nature.

There are therefore two kinds of bacteria capable of developing in latex according to the conditions, the putrefactive organisms being inhibited at a lower temperature than the non-putrefactive organisms.

Experiments were then made to increase the activity of the non-putrefactive organisms by the addition of sugars and it was found that the addition of 0.2 per cent of dextrose brought about coagulation in 18 hours, the whole of the dextrose being completely decomposed. The addition of 1 per cent of dextrose to sterile latex did not bring about coagulation.

Coagulation under anaerobic conditions is not uniform, since it depends on the constituents of the latex. This method, therefore, does not give a rubber of uniform quality.

#### 197. Experiments on Sugar Beet Growing in the South West of France.

*Revue agricole. Revue d'agriculture des Sciences et d'horticulture du Sud-Ouest.* 1915, No. 1, pp. 1-12. Paris, January 1915.

In France, the cultivation of sugar-beet has been restricted hitherto almost entirely to the northern provinces. As this state of affairs is not without drawbacks and even danger, the writer has attempted the growing of the crop in other regions, particularly the South West. In 1914, experiments were carried out in the following departments: Lot-et-Garonne, Gironde, Dordogne, where tobacco is grown. Comparing the nature of the soils suited to the two crops, it was considered that where tobacco was cultivated the beet should also succeed: both require deep, moist, but not too rich soils and both are suited by clayey loams or by clayey chalk soils with a good supply of humus.

Owing to the scarcity of labour, the only experimental fields that received sufficient preparation were those situated in one of the fertile regions of the Causse du Quercy, in 1914, and those on the alluvial lands of the Lot valley, in 1915. The results in these two cases are given in the appended table and show that at any rate the sugar varieties of beet are capable of being grown with profit in South West France.

1) The average yield per acre in the Lot valley is slightly higher than that for the north of France (according to MALPEAUX, 13,680 kg. per acre).

2) The average yield of sugar is at least equal to that obtained in the North of France.

3) The lands of the fertile regions of the Causse (a calcareous plateau between the Lot, the Tarn and its tributaries) are equal in fertility to the alluvial lands of the Lot valley, as far as the sugar varieties are concerned.

On the other hand, distillery beets did less well in the Causse than in the alluvial soils where they showed a sugar content equal to that produced in the North.

4) Climatic conditions being the same for the 4 departments mentioned

| Varieties tested                  | Results in 1914 |               | Results in 1915 |               |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------|
|                                   | Cwt. per acre   | Sugar content | Cwt. per acre   | Sugar content |
| <i>Sugar</i>                      |                 |               |                 |               |
| <i>Amabilis</i> . . . . .         | 298.8           | 15.6          | 318.6           | 17.6          |
| <i>St. Wandleben</i> . . . . .    | 278.8           | 17.1          | 320.2           | 17.4          |
| <i>Distillery</i>                 |                 |               |                 |               |
| <i>Same with green neck</i> . . . | 286.8           | 7.5           | 312.9           | 14.2          |
| <i>pink</i> . . . . .             | 293.9           | 6.8           | 300.7           | 12.8          |
| <i>grey</i> . . . . .             | 286.8           | 9.5           | 312.0           | 11.5          |

enced above, it may be assumed without further trial that the lands similar to those of the Lot valley are well suited to this crop. Such are: those extending, in Dordogne, from Eyzies to Sarlat and from Sarlat to St. Payer-Grande; those of Lot and Garonne which lie between Fumel and Tournais passing by way of Villeneuve-sur-Lot and St. Lysrade.

1915 - **Varieties of Strawberry Tested at the New York Experiment Station.** TAYLOR, O. M., in *New York Agricultural Experiment Station, Annual Bulletin No. 401*, pp. 105-107, Geneva, N. Y., March 1915.

A description of 105 varieties of strawberry tested and examined during the last 3 years at the New York Agricultural Experiment Station. The kinds grown include newer varieties, with standard commercial kinds for purposes of comparison. As climatic and soil conditions have a great effect upon the crop, those obtaining at the Station are given, in order that a better opinion can be formed of the results of the tests of the different varieties.

Attention is drawn to the importance of the various properties of the strawberry plant, such as the seasons of blooming and ripening, the sex of the flowers, stolon production, productiveness, vigour of plant, resistance to disease and the size and quality of the fruit. The varieties are classified as follows: early or late bloomers; varieties maturing early or late; those that are prolific or scanty plant producers; very unproductive or very productive varieties; those growing rapidly or slowly; varieties susceptible to leaf spot (*Sphaerella fragariae*); kinds producing very large or very small fruit; varieties rating high in quality.

A list is then given of the 30 varieties that gave the best results in the cultivation tests at the Station, and finally a detailed description of the 105 kinds studied, with an account of their behaviour under the soil and climatic conditions obtaining at the Station.

The place of origin of the variety is given in each case.

409 - The Cultivation and Manuring of *Oxycoccus (Vaccinium, myrsinites) carpus*. - FRANKLIN H. J. in *Massachusetts Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin*, No. 100, Report of Cranberry Substation for 1914, pp. 91-117. Amherst, March 1915.

**Frost Protection.** In order to see whether cloth could be used satisfactorily to protect bogs from frost, a strip of new cloth was supported by wires held 3 ft. above the ground by stakes, about 9 square rods of rather dry grassy low land being covered in this way, the cloth being brought down to the ground to shut in the covered area on all sides. It was found that the cloth greatly retarded the loss of heat from the ground. A thermometer placed in the centre of the covered area, with its bulb 5 in. above the ground was more than  $4\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  F. higher ( $2.2^{\circ}$  C.) than a similar thermometer at the same elevation placed about 20 ft. outside the cloth. No frost formed on the covered ground, even when the surrounding ground was white with frost.

The writer estimates that the first cost of this means of protection fully installed would be less than £ 200 per acre, but the cloth ought to give good service for many years. He is of opinion that the use of cloth protection is to be recommended for bogs that are winter flooded, but for strictly dry bogs (without winter flowage) the expense is prohibitive, because the returns from such bogs are comparatively small.

**Fertilising experiments.** These were carried out with either one compound, or a mixture of 2 or 3 compounds; to one plot which was treated with a nitrogen-phosphatic-potassic fertiliser, lime was also applied. The amount of fruit picked was taken into account, as well as the losses in stored fruit. The yield varied from  $6\frac{1}{3}$  bushels to  $10\frac{1}{4}$  bushels per acre; both these amounts being obtained from a control (unfertilised) plot. The fertilisers consisting of 3 compounds increased the yield more than those consisting of 2; sulphate of potash was more efficacious than chloride of potash; liming had not much effect. Of the different compounds used, nitrogen increased the yield to the largest extent.

During storage, the losses varied from 22.22 per cent (check) and 37.5 per cent (complete fertiliser and liming). The nitrogenous fertiliser decreased the keeping property of the berries somewhat, as it made them more juicy. The fertiliser had no appreciable effect upon the size of the berries. The application of nitrogenous fertilisers during the beginning of the blossoming seemed to stimulate and increase the setting of the blossoms and the fruit formation.

**Maximum temperature at which flooding water can be used without damage to buds.** - Some cranberry growers were afraid that if the temperature of the water of the June reflowage were too high, serious damage might be done to the buds of *Vaccinium*; the writer, however, found that an exceptionally high temperature:  $86^{\circ}$  F. ( $30^{\circ}$  C.) did practically no harm to the buds.

**Experiments in Italy on the Best Time for Pruning the Vine.**—DALMASSO G. L. in *Ann. Year XXII*, No. 3, pp. 44-47, Conegliano, February 1, 1915.

The question as to whether it is best to prune the vine early or late has not yet been said to have received a satisfactory answer and it seems increasingly necessary to extend the observations made under different climatic, soil and cultural conditions.

| Time of Pruning | No. of vines<br>per row | No. of the<br>row | Average<br>yield<br>per vine<br>lb. | Composition of must |              | Index<br>of<br>ripening |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------|-------------------------|
|                 |                         |                   |                                     | Sugar<br>%          | Acidity<br>‰ |                         |
| Early           | 106                     | IV                | 2,51                                | 21.00               | 0.05         | 3.15                    |
|                 | 105                     | XI                | 2,58                                | 20.50               | 0.18         | 3.28                    |
|                 | Average of 2 rows       |                   | 2,54                                | 20.75               | 0.11         | 3.22                    |
| Middle          | 105                     | V                 | 2,82                                | 18.80               | 0.84         | 2.74                    |
|                 | 107                     | XII               | 2,03                                | 22.00               | 0.00         | 3.00                    |
|                 | Average of 2 rows       |                   | 2,43                                | 20.40               | 0.42         | 3.17                    |
| Late            | 106                     | VI                | 2,80                                | 21.15               | 0.03         | 3.05                    |
|                 | 107                     | XIII              | 2,31                                | 22.40               | 0.18         | 3.00                    |
|                 | Average of 2 rows       |                   | 2,60                                | 21.72               | 0.55         | 3.14                    |
| Very late       | 106                     | VII               | 2,14                                | 20.00               | 0.70         | 3.11                    |
|                 | 106                     | XIV               | 1,24                                | 20.70               | 0.50         | 3.11                    |
|                 | Average of 2 rows       |                   | 1.68                                | 21.80               | 0.05         | 3.27                    |
| Very late       | 101                     | VIII              | 2,35                                | 21.35               | 0.18         | 3.15                    |
|                 | 107                     | XV                | 1,50                                | 21.45               | 0.17         | 3.30                    |
|                 | Average of 2 rows       |                   | 1.94                                | 21.40               | 0.27         | 3.14                    |
| Very late       | 107                     | IX                | 2.61                                | 21.15               | 0.18         | 3.42                    |
|                 | 104                     | XVI               | 1.17                                | 21.70               | 0.75         | 3.21                    |
|                 | Average of 2 rows       |                   | 1.59                                | 21.42               | 0.46         | 3.34                    |
| Very late       | 62                      | X                 | 1.19                                | 20.75               | 0.00         | 3.16                    |

New investigations have been begun in the vineyards of the "Scuola Enologica" at Conegliano, on the 2 following varieties: a vine of the Italian Riesling variety growing on level ground and pruned according to the Guyot method, and a vine of the Rhenish Riesling variety planted on a slope. Although the data of a single year are only of a very small value, still the results observed in the two cases were so markedly good that they deserve immediate notice. They are given in the appended Table.

As regards *quantity*, late prunings (in spring) do not seem to have yielded such satisfactory results as autumn and winter pruning. The effect upon the *quality* of the product is less obvious. The continuation of the experiments will prove whether or not the observations of the first year represent a normal occurrence.

#### 411 - Observations on the Cultivation of Direct Bearers in Savoy (France) in 1915

CARRE F., in *Le Progrès agricole et viticole*, Year 36, No. 46, 149-170 (1915) (Rhône), November 14, 1915.

Observations made by the writer on 2 vineyards situated near Aix Bains, on slopes of fairly calcareous nature but with clayey spots. The one with due southern aspect was very warm, dry and early, there being some places only from 20 to 30 cm. of soil above the rock. These vineyards have never been fertilised. The year 1915 being a very bad one for us many growers in this district only obtained grapes from direct bearers; others also got fairly good crops from certain *vinifera*. Of these, the most attacked were the "douce-noire", or "corbeau", and the "crép" "pendant roux". The writer obtained, in 1915, from his direct bearers a better crop than in 1914 with a slight treatment towards July 19 (spots of mildew) the first applied for 8 years.

The following numbers are considered the best for 1915.

*Old Hybrid Direct Bearers*. — 580 Jurie does very well in the plain; on hot and dry slopes it sometimes loses its leaves (1911 and 1915); it is the only direct bearer that has a high degree of acidity, even when perfectly ripe, which corrects the insipidity of the must of the greater number of the other hybrid direct bearers.

Of the *Seibel Old Hybrids*, 2044 has always proved very productive; 405 is very resistant to drought in the worst soils, even those that are calcareous; its fine bunches escaped the attacks of *Cochylis*; 2007 remains quite healthy without treatment; being exceedingly productive, it is necessary to prune it rather close; 1007 is very productive and very healthy; 209 bears largely with 1 or 2 treatments. Of the *Old Coudere Hybrids*, 100 has proved very productive, vigorous and healthy, its bunches and grapes are better than those borne by 4401; 122-20, 106-51 and 7103 are distinguished for their good grapes.

*White Gaillard* 157 has always proved a good producer; it is not vigorous and consequently needs grafting on poor soils; after 3 years it becomes chlorotic in the spring on calcareous soil.

*New Hybrid Direct Bearers*. — *Seibel Hybrids*: 2779, first and second period of ripening; very productive, vigorous, juice white; 2582, very

are less vigorous, bunches very long; juice coloured; 4591, extremely vigorous, habit of 405 but more productive; 4490, large producer, vigorous. These 4 kinds require 1 or 2 treatments. — 4609 very vigorous, fine fruit, very productive; 4643, 4683, 4620, 4630, varieties with very fine bunches, and grapes above the average; 4433 and 4438, large bunches; 4609 very vigorous, one of the hardiest varieties, very long bunches; 2734 very vigorous, habit and foliage same as Othello, excellent grapes with berry flavour. These 9 kinds are very resistant to mildew and can ease with treatment in ordinary years. The following numbers require at least 2 sprayings and are only of average vigour; they are productive and have very fine compact bunches with large grapes: 4217, 4111, 3011, 3013 and 4065 (very early); the 2 last produce 2 grapes. On poor soils, these numbers require grafting, especially 4217 and 4217.

Among the *Seibels with white grapes*, the following are recommended: very resistant to mildew and very productive, sweet grape, requires 1 on soil; 2709 and 4132 have fine bunches with large grapes; 4744 and 4745 require two sprayings with copper sulphate. The following numbers are vigorous: 4955 very productive; 4595, 4747, 4707, 4773, 4768, and 4769, all very productive, belonging to the first and second period of ripening; 2850 (rose); 4900; 4964 all these numbers only require one application of copper sulphate; 2655, with very fine bunches, early setting, 4151 and 3013, all very productive of grapes for the vat and table, but less vigorous than the preceding. They require, at least, 2 sprayings and on poor soils need grafting.

Amongst the *Seibels with black grapes*, Nos. 2858, 5059, 4190, 4739 and 4940 have proved vigorous and very resistant. *Malique rouge* 809-2 and 4563 proved very vigorous, they require one spraying.

*Chenivresse*, or *Chazalon*, is delicate and susceptible to mildew, and needs 2 treatments.

*Bertille Seyve Hybrids*. — 313, a very good grape, first period, a little susceptible to Oidium; 822 vigorous, very good crop; 453, fine bunches, close fruit; 893, first period, excellent grape, very productive; 4507, like a Noah without foxy flavour but much more productive, with large bunches. All these Bertille-Seyve numbers of the first and second period are very resistant to mildew and can possibly do without spraying.

*Coudere Hybrids*. — 272-60 is very vigorous and very productive in all fresh soils, unsatisfactory on the dry soils of the slopes, susceptible to mildew; 239-35 or Muscat du Moulin is vigorous and very resistant; it produces an excellent table grape.

*Baco Hybrids*. — Vines 1, 22A, Capéran, Petit Boné and Chasselas all very resistant to mildew; the first is extremely vigorous.

In general, all the hybrids here mentioned grow best and are most vigorous in the plain, especially on damp soil; many are susceptible to mildew and the heat of the sun during drought; some ripen better in the shade than in dry years; such as for example 126-25 Coudere, which ripens better in the shade than in the sun; 2044, 580 etc.

The grapes of direct bearers are generally fermented in the mixed with *vinifera* grapes, as they decrease the acidity and improve the colour of these latter; the wines obtained sell well for immediate consumption. On the other hand, even the original direct European-American bearers (Othello, Noah), are acclimatised in Savoy, and have now to a great extent their former foxy taste.

412 **Vine-Growing in California.**—SWETT, F. T., in *The Monthly Bulletin of the Association of Horticulture*, Vol. IV, No. 11, pp. 391-403, Sacramento, Cal., November, 1913.

At the present time, in California, the future of the grape industry, like that of the apple and peach industries, is decidedly uncertain. It will need the wisdom of legislators, the skill of technicians, and the cooperation of business men to carry it through the coming decade without incurring severe losses, the effects of which would fall heavily on growers of grapes on banks, on business men and on wage earners.

The growth of the grape and wine industry in California has been steady, continuous and rapid, as is shown by the increase in the average quinquennial returns of wine production from 1869 to 1914. The amount of wine produced in each five-year period, in round numbers, is 16 million, 21 million, 42 million, 71 million, 89 million, 120 million, 142 million, 187 million, 225 million.

There are now 170,000 acres of wine grapes. In addition to the part of the product of table grape vineyards and of raisin grape vineyards that goes to the wineries. This steady growth, which is due to high prices obtained by the growers, is in contrast to the violent fluctuations of the orchard business. The latter, with few exceptions, fell off greatly between 1900 and 1910, as is shown by the following statistics taken from the report of the State Board of Agriculture.

*Comparative Table of Fruit Trees in California in 1900 and 1910*

|                            | 1900       | 1910       | %    |
|----------------------------|------------|------------|------|
| Apples . . . . .           | 2 878 169  | 2 482 762  | 86.3 |
| Apricots . . . . .         | 4 244 384  | 2 972 453  | 70.0 |
| Pears . . . . .            | 2 512 890  | 1 410 005  | 56.1 |
| Cherries . . . . .         | 686 891    | 522 304    | 76.0 |
| Olives . . . . .           | 1 530 104  | 836 347    | 54.6 |
| Lemons . . . . .           | 1 493 113  | 941 293    | 63.0 |
| Peaches . . . . .          | 80 918     | 43 127     | 53.3 |
| Almonds . . . . .          | 1 601 947  | 1 166 130  | 72.8 |
| Plums and prunes . . . . . | 9 832 713  | 7 168 705  | 72.9 |
| Totals . . . . .           | 24 852 180 | 17 564 326 | 70.7 |

Source: Report of the State Board of Agriculture, 1911.

## HYGIENE OF LIVE STOCK

During the ten-year period, 1900-1910, the acreage of the above varieties of fruits dropped from 248,000 to 175,000, a shrinkage of nearly 30 per cent. in acres.

In the meantime, the vineyard acreage during the same time has grown to a total of about 330,000, composed of about 170,000 of wine grapes, 110,000 raising grapes and 50,000 acres table grapes. Nevertheless, owing to the heavy internal revenue tax levied recently by Congress on wines and on the brandies used in the fortifying of sweet wines, the wineries of the interior valleys have already cancelled contracts for at least 400,000 tons of grapes. The tonnage of table grapes that can be used this season by the wineries is, however, doubtful.

With a full crop of table grapes, about 20,000 carloads are shipped, but during the last 3 years, an average of only about 6,500 a year were shipped, with perhaps 1000 cars a year used in local markets. The rest are sold at a loss to the wineries. It is beyond dispute that table grapes have been over planted, an excessive and ruinous oversupply of mid-season grapes having been grown; there is, however, room for more early grapes of good quality and for more late grapes of good keeping quality.

The State Board of Viticultural Commissioners made an exhaustive study of the financial losses incurred by shipping mid-season grapes and proposed a law which came into force in 1915, the "Ashley Standardization Law" which provides that grapes must contain a minimum of 17 per cent of sugar for all grapes except the "Emperor".

The Commission is also devoting its attention to the questions of replacing mid-season grapes by early and late kinds, and of grafting the "Zante", "Almeria" and "Emperor" varieties.

The writer states that there is a tendency among such owners of vineyards as have sufficient capital or credit, to replace every third vine with plum, pear, almond, or some other fruit tree. He is of opinion that, in view of the great importance of the agricultural undertakings in California, it is increasingly necessary to study the economic problems, which at present seem to overshadow the technical ones, and in conclusion, agriculturists are reminded that agriculture, the one large industry that from present appearances can never be overdone in California is to be based largely upon general farming and animal industry.

## LIVE STOCK AND BREEDING.

21. **Studies on the Heredity of Rabies.** — KONRAD DANIEL in *Annales de l'Institut Pasteur*, Vol. XXX, No. 1, pp. 33-38, Paris, January 1916.

Work carried out at the Institute of Pathology and General Therapeutics at Kologsvár, Hungary. The writer had previously shown that the infectious matter of rabies is transmitted from the mother to the embryo. Subsequently to the publication of these articles, other experiments were made on the same subject with contradictory results. The writer crit-



icises these experiments and gives an account of his later researches, from which he draws the following conclusions:

1) The infectious matter of rabies is transmitted from mother to foetus, but is attenuated in the process. This explains why rabies manifests itself by degrees, following, as it does, the gradual removal of virus from its source.

2) As regards this transmission, there seems to be no difference between different species of animals; it occurs equally in dogs, rabbits, guinea-pigs, and probably in the case of the other animals also.

3) In order to obtain good results from inoculation, guinea-pigs, and not rabbits, must be used, and the injection should be made beneath the meninges. Guinea-pigs being more susceptible to rabies, give more rapid and certain reactions. As rabbits only contract rabies very late and are sometimes immune, their use may lead to erroneous conclusions being drawn.

4) In the case of guinea-pigs it is also very important to prolong the time of observation, since these animals also contract the disease much later than those that are inoculated with virus from the mother.

5) The virus is already circulating in the blood of the animal infected, when fever, the first symptom of induced rabies, makes it apparent. By means of the blood it is transmitted from the mother to the foetus some weeks and even months before death.

6) The bite of a dog is already dangerous 14 days before the appearance of the characteristic clinical symptoms.

114. **Treatment of Foot-and-Mouth Disease by means of Hellebore.**—SANTORI DI L. In *Il Moderno Zoologo*, Series V, Year V, No. 1, pp. 17-20, Bologna, January 1911.

The root of hellebore is an old empirical remedy which has been completely abandoned by ordinary medical and veterinary practice. The writer, on the other hand, in the course of a long career, has never completely abandoned its use and has lately obtained excellent results in the treatment of the malignant form of foot-and-mouth disease.

Whereas the symptoms of the benign form of this disease are the appearance of large vesicles on the mouth and feet accompanied by a varying amount of fever which ceases directly suppuration sets in, those of the malignant form are minute vesicles on the gums and insignificant lesions of the feet accompanied by very high fever. The cause of the second form is apparently some infective agent still unknown which, gaining access to the organism, acts directly on the blood by attacking the plasma, thus influencing the most important nerve centres.

For the benign form, any treatment based on antiseptic dressing is effective.

In the treatment of the malignant form, the writer has made use of fixation abscesses, that is to say of revulsives provoking the formation of foci of induced inflammation in parts of the body removed from the infected centres; these foci attract the germs and toxins infecting the blood and thus cause the resumption of phagocytosis by the leucocytes. Injections were begun with turpentine, but this treatment is impracticable for

as the strong dose required would be sufficient to impart an odour to the flesh and render it useless should it be necessary to slaughter the animal suddenly. Recourse was then had to the root of hellebore, the following method being adopted:

Some 10 to 15 roots of hellebore are taken, according to the age of the animal, and allowed to macerate in vinegar for 15 minutes. After preliminary disinfection, a longitudinal incision is made in the fetlock, the scalpel penetrating the cellular tissue; the root is then firmly in the wound and allowed to remain for 48 hours. At the expiration of that time it is withdrawn, the flesh slightly scarified, and the wound washed, disinfected and bandaged. The result of the treatment is to cause the formation of an inflammatory nature extending as far as the neighbourhood of the sternum, with secretion of purulent serum. It should no swelling of the fetlock be observed at the end of 24 to 30 hours the case will have a fatal termination; if the reverse be the case, the cure is certain.

In the course of an outbreak there occurred among 4000 head of cattle, 1000 cases of epizootic foot-and-mouth disease, of which 81 were of the malignant type. Of this latter number, 17 succumbed to the apoplectic type, 15 were treated with the usual antiseptics and 51 with roots of hellebore. Except in 2 cases where the disease was too far advanced to give a local reaction, all the remaining 40 animals were cured.

**Single Food Diet and Nutritional Deficiency.** WILKIE and MOURQUAND (1910) (*Revue des Semaines de la Société de Biologie*, Vol. LXXXIX, No. 1, pp. 1-10, Paris, January 27, 1910).

It is generally admitted that a diet consisting exclusively of one food or a limited number of foods is the cause of nutritional troubles which culminate in a very serious organic breakdown and even in death. The occurrence of scurvy, beri-beri and certain infantile diseases are explained in this manner.

On the other hand, milk and potatoes (the latter sometimes the sole food of certain portions of the population in Ireland) are two examples of single diets which do not necessarily occasion nutritional troubles.

A series of experiments has shown that:

- 1) Pigeons fed exclusively on whole cereal grains (rice, barley, maize) follow their normal development.
  - 2) Feeding with the same grains completely devoid of husk causes "deficiency" troubles (polynuritic and cerebellar type) followed by death.
  - 3) An exclusive diet of barley only partially husked ( $\frac{1}{4}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$  of husk still remaining) is sufficient to maintain the birds in health.
  - 4) Complete sterilisation of barley grains causes "deficiency" troubles absolutely identical with those occasioned by their decortication.
  - 5) Feeding of cats on an exclusive diet of fresh raw or frozen meat (fresh life for a long period, whereas the same meat sterilised (at  $120^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) dies (in 25-35 days) nervous derangement followed by death.
- The above facts show that a single food diet becomes harmful only by sterilisation or, in the case of cereal grains, decortication.

A varied diet is undoubtedly more suitable to the organism than consisting of a single food. Feeding pigeons with a mixture of grains has also been shown by experiment to be more favourable than feeding with a single species of decorticated grain. But it may be given a mixed ration (wheat, barley, rice) of decorticated cereals; there occur, after 14-24 days, symptoms of paralysis followed by death just as in the case of the ration consisting of decorticated grains of a single species of cereal. So that not only has the variety in the diet been found to effect normal nutrition but it even seems (judging from the troubles with which troubles appear) to have hastened "deficiency" troubles.

In conclusion, the writers have compared the influence on the nutrition of the rabbit, of a given vegetable ration in the raw and cooked and sterilised states. In the case of the raw ration the health of the rabbit was not impaired after 100 days of experiment. In the case of the cooked and sterilised ration (1 ½ hours at 120° C.) troubles of a scorbutic type appeared towards the 35th day and resulted in death. Again the raw nature of the diet was incapable of protecting the animals from "deficiency" troubles.

The decortication and sterilisation of cereals and the sterilisation of meat and vegetable removes from these foods "vital" substances or "vitamines" (vitamines of FUNG) the presence of which in infinitesimal quantities assures the assimilation and utilisation of the ordinary nutritive substances (proteids, carbohydrates, fats).

It is the suppression of these substances by sterilisation or decortication and not the exclusive nature of the diet which, in the preceding experiments, seems to be the primary factor in inducing deficiency troubles and death.

119. **Formation of Albumen in the Animal Body at the Expense of Nitrogenous and Albuminoid Substances.** — STURDER, in *Fakhr's Landwirtschaftliche Zeitschrift*, 1918, No. 11-12, pp. 281-293. Stuttgart, 1918.

The syntheses of albumen only occurs in a small degree in the body of domestic animals, as with normal feeding they draw chiefly upon the albumen of the forage.

However, ABDERHALDEN's experiments have shown that the formation of albumen by synthesis may occur in animals when the necessary constituents are present. The components of albumen may be divided into 2 groups: amino acids of the fat series and amino compounds of the aromatic series. The chief members of the second group are tryptophane and tyrosine.

The formation of amino-acids sometimes takes place in the liver of animals at the expense of carbohydrates (glycogen) and ammonia. The substance intermediate between the carbohydrate and ammonia on the one hand and the amino-acid on the other is a cetonic acid. Consequently there is only formation of amino-acids belonging to the fat series and the synthesis of albumen is impossible if there are not present in the body amino compounds of the aromatic series.

The writer makes the following statements based on his own and on various experiments:

1) Carnivora and omnivora are capable of forming albumen synthetically when, in addition to amino-acids of the fat series, there are also present in the body tryptophane and tyrosine.

2) Carnivorous animals are capable of drawing upon a certain quantity of amino compounds and of urea for certain physiological needs. If the food is poor in albumen there is at most a state of nitrogen equilibrium in the body as these nitrogenous compounds protect the albumen of the body against decomposition.

3) Herbivorous non-ruminant animals behave similarly to carnivores and omnivores.

4) Ruminants behave differently on account of the large number of bacteria living in their stomachs and intestines, except in the case of young animals in which the paunch is not yet sufficiently developed.

5) Ruminants which yield no milk may make use not only of certain amino compounds (asparagin), but also of ammoniacal salts (ammonium acetate) by transforming them by the aid of bacteria into a species of albumen known as "bacterial" albumen (Bakterienalbumen) which is partly utilized by the animals. However, this process takes place only when the fodder is rich in carbohydrates and contains a certain quantity of albumen (not too small). The productive value of this albumen is also much smaller than that of the albumen of the fodder. The asparagin or ammonium acetate which is added to fodder increases the digestibility of the crude cellulose and the nitrogen free extract. Experiments of a similar kind with urea have not yet been made in the case of the above class of animals.

6) On administering fodder sufficiently rich in albumen to ruminants yielding milk, and on adding asparagin to the fodder, effects of two different kinds may be observed:

a) the asparagin does not react;

b) the asparagin stimulates the udder in such a way that the milk yield is greatly increased at the expense of the meat. When a portion of the albumen of the fodder is replaced by amides or by ammonium acetate, the milk yield is always decreased, because the quantity of albumen formed by the bacteria at the expense of these substances is not sufficient to make up for the deficit in the albumen of the fodder. From the scientific point of view, it is interesting to note that ruminants may, in certain cases, make use of the albumen formed by the bacteria for milk production and body maintenance, but from the practical point of view the interest is limited owing to the fact that the economic value is *nil*.

Similar experiments with urea have not yet been made in the case of ruminants giving milk but it may be assumed that this substance behaves in similar manner to ammoniacal salts.

417 **Experiments with Ammoniacal Salts in the Feeding of Ruminants.**  
MORGAN A., In *Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse*, Year 43, No. 16, p. 122, 1910, February 21, 1910.

An account of feeding experiments with ammonia salts (except the acetate) on ewes and goats extending over a period of four years. The animals were first fed a ration containing, on an average, 2.3 to 2.8% of digestible albumen per 1000 kg. of live weight. In 24 cases, part of the albumen was afterwards replaced by acetate of ammonia, and in 12 cases by carbohydrates in the following proportions: 36 per cent of albumen in the first year; 44 per cent the second year; 62 per cent the third and 80 per cent the fourth.

The results of these experiments expressed as percentages of the results obtained with the ration containing the full proportion of albumen are given in the table below.

The results of the experiments may be summarised as follows:

1) Substitution of acetate of ammonia for part of the albumen produced a decrease in the quantity and richness of the milk. The smaller the albumen content of the fodder, the poorer the milk.

2) The substitution by carbohydrates of the same amount of albumen still further reduced the quantity and richness of the milk.

3) Acetate of ammonia had less effect upon the milk yield, than did the albumen content of the forage.

Acetate of ammonia can thus only partially replace albumen. In the digestive tract (especially the panceh) it is transformed by bacteria into albumen which is utilised by the animals. It is considered that acetate of ammonia is capable of replacing part of the albumen, not only in a maintenance ration, but also for production. It must, however, not be used in too large quantities, for fear of mining the health of the animals. It is better only to use acetate of ammonia in cases where albumen is entirely absent.

*Results of Experiments (Values stated as percentages).*

|          | Acetate of ammonia |               |                    |      | Carbohydrates  |               |                    |      |
|----------|--------------------|---------------|--------------------|------|----------------|---------------|--------------------|------|
|          | No. of animals     | Milk produced | Dry Matter of Milk | Fat  | No. of animals | Milk Produced | Dry Matter of Milk | Fat  |
| 1st year | 1                  | 93.7          | 98.9               | —    | 7              | 78.0          | 75.4               | 71.4 |
| 2nd "    | 9                  | 92.7          | 91.1               | 92.5 | 6              | 94.1          | 88.8               | 85.1 |
| 3rd "    | 9                  | 69.6          | 67.8               | 67.2 | —              | —             | —                  | —    |
| 4th "    | 5                  | 75.1          | 72.6               | 72.0 | 2              | 64.7          | 62.4               | 61.4 |

418 - **The Heredity of Sex** (1). — *The Journal of Heredity*, Vol. VII, No. 1, pp. 9-11, W. D. Henshaw, D. C., January 1916.

Under ordinary conditions, for every 100 female calves born in a lot of cattle there will be 107 male calves. Many cases have, however, been noticed in which the proportion was very different.

(1) See also *ibid.* March 1-10, No. 320.

Thus, in a herd of registered dairy cattle, about 75 per cent of all the calves born in recent years have been males, while in another case a cow (which has beaten the world's record for milk production) and its two sisters dropped 12 male calves and only 1 female. The study of the ancestry of these animals revealed, both in the first and second case, an hereditary tendency to produce more offspring of one sex than of the other. The possibility of obtaining by selection a breed of fowls that has a tendency to produce disproportionate numbers of one sex has also been proved. Mr. H. E. SHARP, a breeder of the State of Washington, has developed a strain of Langshan fowls that are producing over 90 per cent females, and this trait is being transmitted from generation to generation; he has also found that amongst the chickens hatched from the eggs of a single fowl, the proportion between the males and females varies very little with the change of the cock with which the hen is mated, or from one year to another, whereas it varies enormously in the case of different fowls of the same lot.

The inbreeding experiment of Dr. HELEN DEAN KING at the Wistar Institute, Philadelphia, has given results which lend some colour to the belief that a strain of animals may be produced having a tendency to produce disproportionate numbers of one sex. The experiment has been carried out for 6 years, and during this time more than 22 000 albino rats have been bred and studied. From the same litter 2 males and 2 females are taken; inbreeding was practised to the 6th generation without any sexual selection; 2 pairs were taken from this generation, the one (brother and sister) from a litter containing an excess of males, the other from a litter containing an excess of females. There has been steady selection in the opposite direction through 21 generations with strict inbreeding of the animals selected. The result is that, instead of a normal ratio of 7 males to 100 females (which was established at the beginning of the experiment) Dr. King now gets in the one line 150 males to 100 females, and in the other, 65 males to 100 females.

**A New Type of Cattle for Alaska.** — *The Journal of Heredity*, Vol. VII, No. 1, p. 15, 1 fig. Washington, January 1916.

No breeds of dairy or beef cattle have as yet been found hardy enough to stand the winters in the interior of Alaska without excessive expense for food and protection against cold. As a result, milk sells for 50 cents a quart and the beef that is consumed in the country consists almost wholly of cold-storage meat brought from the outside. To remedy this situation as far as possible, the Alaska Experiment Station have undertaken to cross Galloway cattle with the Yak, an Asiatic ox much used by Mongolians, Tibetans etc., for milk and meat as well as work. It is used for a beast of burden at altitudes of 12 000 ft. and more. It is extremely hardy, pastures through the winter under the open sky in Siberia and obtains feed from last year's dead grass dug from under the snow. Crosses of the Yak and ordinary domestic cattle are common in parts of Asia (for example in Turkestan) and have been found of much value.

129 — **Experiments in Germany on the Causes of Sterility in Male Goats.** — *Abhandl. in Deutsche Tierärztliche Wochenschrift* Year 24, No. 52, pp. 451-457, with figures. December 22, 1915.

A detailed study of sterility in male goats. According to the writer, sterility in goats is chiefly due to the male, whereas with sheep the contrary is the case. Sterility in the male goat may be either *partial* and *temporary* or *total* and *permanent*.

I. Partial and temporary sterility is found in the following cases:

1) When the male goat is weakened by disease.

2) When it is badly fed.

3) When a male goat serves too large a number of females and is generally not sufficient spermatozoa to fertilise them all. This, however, in the writer's opinion, is quite an individual character, since there are examples of quite exceptional sexual potency; thus a good Flemish goat served 17 females in a single day and 350 in one season, most of which need not need to be put to the male a second time.

4) Onanism is also a cause of sterility.

All the foregoing cases of sterility are curable.

II. — Total and permanent sterility can be induced by various causes, of which the following are the principal.

1) *Cryptorchism and hermaphroditism.* — These defects are more observed in the male goat than in the stallion or bull, but the consequences are less serious in the first-named animal. These cases of sterility are transmissible by the parents.

2) *Sterility due to closure of the seminiferous ducts.* — This is the most common form of sterility and causes enormous losses in goat-breeding. Among 25 male goats examined by the writer, 22 had this defect.

The closing of the seminiferous ducts is caused by the induration of the cells of the testicle, epididymis or hilum, generally of all three at once. The induration process usually commences in the testicle, where the spermatozoa, owing to the closing of the seminiferous ducts, form calcified nodules.

Where a portion of the ducts is closed, the fertility of the goat is not affected, but if the whole of the ducts gradually becomes closed, the animal becomes completely sterile.

When the duct of the epididymis is entirely closed, the goat is completely sterile, even when large quantities of spermatozoa still remain in the testicle.

Goats with these defects generally retain the desire to cover, but if the seminal fluid containing no spermatozoa the female remain sterile. The disease is easily recognisable in its advanced stages, the testicles being small and soft. The hilum is thickened, as is also the epididymis.

In the early stages, on the contrary, this disease is difficult to recognise without examining the seminal fluid.

Attempts to discover the fundamental cause of this defect have led to the conclusion that it is probably hereditary. The sterility of male goats is a trouble met with everywhere but it is less common in some countries. In Germany, most sterile male goats are to be found in Hesse. Of the 25

was examined by the writer, 24 came directly from Hesse, or were the young of parents born in that province.

When purchasing male goats for breeding purposes it is first necessary to ascertain that the genital organs are well formed; animals should not be kept till they are old enough to permit of conclusive examination. If this is difficult to diagnose, recourse must be had to microscopic examination of the seminal fluid.

The article contains numerous illustrations of transverse sections of testicles.

**Experiments in Swine Feeding at the Oregon Agricultural College Experiment Station.** WILTYCOMBE JAMES, POTTER ERMINE L. and SANSON GEORGE R., in *Oregon Agricultural College Experiment Station, Bulletin No. 127*, 30 pp. Corvallis, Oregon, 1914:15.

The results of 24 experiments in pig-feeding made at the Agricultural College of the State of Oregon during the last 10 years; the common feeds for Oregon for the fattening of pigs were given to the animals. The following is a summary of the results of some of the most interesting of experiments.

In one of the experiments, 10 high class pigs, 4½ months old, from mixed Yorkshire sows and sired by a pure-bred Berkshire boar were divided into 2 lots which were as equal as possible. Both lots were fed ground corn while one received skim milk and the other shorts, as a supplement. The total rations fed the 2 lots had the same nutritive ratio and were measured so as also to contain the same amount of nutritive substances. The experiment lasted 62 days. The results are given in the table below. To take into account the expense of rearing and fattening and of the maintenance of the sow during gestation and the keep of the young pigs till the beginning of the experiment, the feed cost for the first 100 pounds of live weight was \$4.04. The cost of each further 100 lb. gain was \$6.00 for the lot on shorts and \$4.45 for the lot given skim milk, so that the total cost of each 200 pound pig was \$11.03 in the case of lot I and \$6.84 for lot II.

In another experiment, there were 3 lots of 10 pigs, each of which received the same ration consisting of ground barley 96 per cent and tankage (after house refuse) 10 per cent. Lot 1, hand fed twice daily, ration dry; lot 2, fed with self feeder, ration dry; lot 3, hand fed, twice daily, ration wet twelve hours before being fed. Throughout the experiment the pigs of lot 2 made the most progress and gave the best final result after 100 days of the experiment, as is seen in the table. This lot also consumed the least food per head, while the amount of food necessary to produce 100 lbs of live weight was less in this lot than in the 2 others. The largest increase in live weight per head daily was 2.44 pounds and the smallest was 1.56 pounds; in both cases the pigs were barrows. The 10 best pigs were 7 barrows and 3 gilts (daily increase per head 2.44 pounds -- 1.75 pound). Of the 10 pigs showing the smallest gains in live weight (1.56 pounds -- 1 pound) 7 were barrows and 3 gilts. The 10 pigs that were intermediate between the 2 lots (1.73 -- 1.56 pounds) consisted of 8 gilts and only 2 barrows. The



writers conclude from this that male pigs show a greater variability in live weight than female pigs.

In the last experiment, 2 lots, each of 10 pigs, received a dry ration of 92 per cent of ground barley and 8 per cent tankage and were fed by feeders. The first lot were kept in a covered pen, while the second lot were allowed to feed in a clover field at will. The two lots were uniform in size, sex, breeding and quality of the animals. The experiment lasted 44 days and the results obtained are given in the following table.

| Experiment | Lot of pigs | Live weight per head |            | Consumption of food    |              |         | Increase in live weight per head daily | To produce 100 lbs. of live weight |              |       |
|------------|-------------|----------------------|------------|------------------------|--------------|---------|--|------------------------------------|--------------|-------|
|            |             | Initial lbs.         | Final lbs. | per head daily         |              |         |  | Consumption of food                |              |       |
|            |             |                      |            | Shorts                 | Ground wheat | Milk    |  | Shorts                             | Ground wheat | Milk  |
| I.         | 1           | 106                  | 191        | 1.76                   | 3.5          | —       | 1.21                                   | 145                                | 260          | —     |
|            | 2           | 105                  | 205        | —                      | 4.1          | 7.2     | 1.54                                   | —                                  | 216          | 113   |
| II.        | 1           | 101.0                | 191.7      | 6.88                   |              |         | 1.48                                   | 462.73                             |              |       |
|            | 2           | 101.4                | 213.0      | 7.71                   |              |         | 1.82                                   | 421.07                             |              |       |
|            | 3           | 98.5                 | 193.0      | 6.93                   |              |         | 1.54                                   | 449.34                             |              |       |
|            |             |                      |            | Barley Tankage Clover. |              |         | Barley Tankage Clover.                 |                                    |              |       |
| III.       | 1           | 89                   | 157        | 5.510                  | .480         | —       | 1.345                                  | 357.524                            | 31.127       | 355.2 |
|            | 2           | 89                   | 173        | 6.429                  | .589         | ad lib. | 1.909                                  | 336.784                            | 20.285       | 356.7 |

422 - "Clover Flour" as a Feed for Pigs. — ZUR HERST V. A. in *Illustrated Food and Dietetics*, Year 36, No. 3, pp. 13-14, Berlin January 8, 1916.

The "clover flour" sold in Germany for feeding pigs is made by grinding young clover which has been thoroughly dried previously. It is used with potatoes, beans etc.

In order to determine the food value of this new fodder, a feeding experiment was carried out with 10 sows, upwards of one year old, which farrowed in the spring of 1915. During the summer and autumn of the same year, the animals were turned out to pasture, where they only received a small additional ration of young green clover and afterwards of roots. On October 28, the sows were put in the sty for fattening until the 25th. of the following November, their ration consisted of clover beans, potatoes, fish meal, acorns and beetroots.

Its feeding value corresponded to that established by Kellner. The increase in live weight during this period was 0.44 kg. per head daily.

Calculating the value of the kilo at one shilling, the experiment resulted in a loss of £ 4.7.6 for the lot of 10 animals.

From November 25, the sows were given, instead of the beans, a ration of clover flour (starting with 2 litres, or .44 of a gallon per head at each feeding) which was fed mixed with fishmeal and boiled potatoes, with the addition of cold water. This ration was given with some small modifications until December 19, on which day the experiment finished. During the experiment, the animals were always in good health.

During this second period, the live weight of the sows increased considerably, namely 1.38 kg. per head daily. The lot of 10 animals gave a profit just over £14.

Although this estimate does not allow for all possible expenses, it can be said that the productive value of the clover flour had proved excellent.

It is therefore considered that this new food, if fed with fish meal and boiled potatoes, is an excellent feed for fattening purposes.

**On the Effects of Feeding Pituitary and Corpus Luteum Substance to Growing Chicks (1).** — PEARL, RAYMOND (Biological Laboratory, Maine Agricultural Station). *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 50-51. Washington, D.C., January 1916.

These experiments were carried out to determine the effect of pituitary substance on the function of egg production in the domestic fowl. Fifty-five pure-bred Barred Plymouth Rock pullets all hatched the same day were divided into three lots of 15 each. They were chosen so that the initial weights of the three lots were equal. Pituitary substance (anterior lobe) contained in gelatine capsules with lactose was given to one lot at the rate of .082 gr., per bird per day. A second lot of pullets received the same amount of desiccated corpus luteum substance from pregnant cows and a third lot was kept as a control.

Though all the birds remained in a perfect state of health throughout the experiment, both the corpus luteum and the pituitary substance retarded the growth, the effect being greater in the case of the lot receiving corpus luteum.

There was no evidence that the pituitary substance hastened in any way the initial activity of the ovaries of the pullets.

Thus it appears that both glandular substances retard growth in the fowl without affecting the date of sexual maturity or interfering with normal physiological development.

**4. — Two Pheasant Crosses.** — PHILLIPS JOHN C. in *The Journal of Heredity*, Vol. VII, No. 1, pp. 12-16, 3 figs. Washington, January, 1916.

In a preceding paper (2) the writer described a reciprocal first cross between Reeves' pheasant and the common ring-neck pheasant (*Phasianus torquatus*). It was shown that the males differed very perceptibly in the two crosses, but of the females nothing could be learned because only the female was reared from the cross of male ring-neck female Reeves', and the male at all in the other cross.

1 See also *B.* January 1915, No. 76; *B.* August 1915, No. 838.

(Ed.).

2 See *B.* February 1914, No. 155.

(Ed.).

In order to find out whether these sterile reciprocal hybrids are referred in the male sex, and also whether the females would show differences, another cross was carried out as a check upon the first experiment. But in the second experiment, the Prince of Wales pheasant (*P. pr.*) was used instead of the *P. torquatus*.

The *P. principalis* belongs to the dark-necked, red-rumped group. The striking features of the male are briefly as follows: neck-ring blue; lesser and median wing coverts white, with white shaft stripes on greater coverts; rump and upper tail coverts orange red, with a few fine black spots; tail barring reduced to faint lines.

The Reeves' pheasant, *Symalictus reevesii*, belongs to a monotypic group. The male is entirely unlike any of the true pheasants (*Phasianus*) in coloring, and has a tail 3 or 4 feet long. The upper surface of the body is bright golden colour, with black edgings to the feathers of the mantle, wings and rump, while the breast and flanks are barred with white, black and chestnut. The head is strikingly marked with black and white. The female Reeves' pheasant shows some of the male characters in her tail pattern and the colors of her mantle, breast, and flanks.

The two species crossed are therefore wholly unlike in both sexes in all plumages, and always produce absolutely sterile hybrids. In 1911 Reeves' cock was mated with two Prince of Wales females (Pen J 1914) and a Prince of Wales cock was placed with a couple of Reeves' females (Pen K 1914). Both these parent stocks were inbred and came from the same grandparents.

From Pen J nine birds were reared to maturity, four males and five females, and from Pen K one male and three females. Comparing the types of males and the two pens of females we get the following results:

In the 1914 cross, Reeves' male  $\times$  Prince of Wales female (cross *J*) and in the reciprocal cross (*K*) the sterile male hybrids are similar and closely approximate to the slightly different reciprocal hybrids of the Reeves  $\times$  ring-neck experiment of 1912. With the females, however, of the two first mentioned crosses, there are almost no points in common. In cross *J* they are small, female-like, and very close to the Reeves female in their colouring. In cross *K* they are large and male-like, with pattern and coloring of both the male parents. No trace of a sex gland was found in any of these females, but a small and thin-walled oviduct was always present.

It is possible that these facts may be explained on the basis of sex linkage, with the assumption that the eggs are dimorphic, and the sperm monomorphic for sex and sex linked characters, but no proof is available on account of the impossibility of testing the sterile hybrids.

Rough measurements of the spleen cells failed to reveal any difference in their size between *K* and *J* females.

425 - **Laying Competition at Burnley.** — BROWN EDWARD, in *The Journal of the Agriculture*, Vol. XXII, No. 7, pp. 658-662. London, October 1915.

For nine years, the Northern Utility Poultry Society, which is largely composed of artisans in a great manufacturing centre, has conducted its

competitions. The competition described in this article extended from October 15, 1913, to October 4, 1914.

In no part of the United Kingdom has the keeping of poultry for egg production, as a supplementary pursuit, been developed during recent years to a greater extent than around Burnley. The development has been more or less intensive in its nature owing to local conditions (high cost of land and the fact that all food must be provided, large local demand and high prices paid for eggs), and the average productiveness of the hens is of some importance, since without increase of fecundity, the margin of profit would be insufficient.

In view of the desirability of encouraging egg production in industrial areas, the Burnley example is of considerable value, and these laying competitions have exerted a wide influence.

For the purpose of the competition of 1913-14 a small holding of three acres was rented. The competition was arranged in 4 sections:

1) *Small House Section.* — The ordinary small house was used in this section: 12 ft. by 8 ft. and 5 ft. 6 in. high at the eaves, rising to 8 ft. in the centre, with a run allowing 30 sq. yds. for each bird.

2) *Semi-Intensive Section.* — A large flock was located in a house measuring 36 ft. by 15 ft. high at the eaves, rising to 11 ft. in the centre and allowing 3½ sq. ft. of floor space for each bird. Outside was a run divided into four sections for alternate use.

3) *Local Section:* restricted to competitors within a radius of eight miles of Burnley, the houses used being similar to those in No. 1.

4) *Dry Feeding Test:* in which were birds representing 4 noted laying strains.

Each of the small houses used accommodated 234 birds; in Section 2, 20 birds were placed in the large house, grouped into two lots, heavy and light breeds respectively. Each competitor in the open sections was required to enter 8 birds, 4 in the Small House Section and 4 in the Semi-Intensive Section. Comparisons between the two can be made, as the feeding and other conditions were the same, the only differences to be noted being as regards the size of house and the number of inmates.

The following table shows the differences as to average number of eggs laid per hen.

It is evident that the smaller flocks (small houses) yielded a larger number of eggs in winter, though the differences are small in the aggregate. Except in one case, this difference is more apparent with heavy than with light breeds. How far the better results obtained with the small houses make up for the greater cost of equipment and of labour, requires further proof.

The Dry Feeding Test did not prove successful; the 16 birds never presented the same bloom and vigour as the others, especially during the winter. The dry feeding consisted of equal parts of bran, biscuit meal, raps, ground oats and biscuit dust with 10 per cent of fish meal as a dry fish, and of equal parts of wheat, oats, cockle and kibbled maize, or brown barley mixed and given in an automatic feeder.

*Average Number of Eggs Laid per Bird Annually in the Small and the Large Houses.*

| Breed             | Number of Pullets | Number of Eggs<br>in Large House | Number of Eggs<br>in Small House |
|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| White Wyandottes  | 48                | 174.62                           | 172.50                           |
| Buff Orpingtons   | 16                | 136.75                           | 132.50                           |
| Buff Rocks        | 4                 | 149.25                           | 142.50                           |
| Rhode Island Reds | 4                 | 181.00                           | 167.50                           |
| White Leghorns    | 68                | 166.30                           | 162.50                           |
| Anconas           | 16                | 181.81                           | 172.50                           |
| All Breeds        | 156               | 167.13                           | 162.50                           |
| Heavy Breeds      | 72                | 164.65                           | 162.50                           |
| Light Breeds      | 84                | 169.23                           | 162.50                           |

During the competition, which lasted 1 year, 71,709 eggs were produced; of these 13,526 (or 18.86 per cent) were laid in the winter of 1910 (October to January inclusive), this percentage being distinctly above the average. The cost of food under such conditions must always be heavy. In this competition it worked out at 7s. 4d. per bird, per annum. The average number of eggs sold per bird was 108.3d., and the average price was 1s. 4½d. per dozen.

120. **The Ancestry of the Goose.** — *The Journal of Heredity*, Vol. VII, No. 1, p. 34 (1916).  
 Johns Washington, January 1916.

The ordinary breeds of domesticated geese are the slightly modified descendants of the grey lag goose (*Anser anser* L.) which is still found throughout northern Asia, although nearly extinct in Europe. It has already been domesticated at the most remote period of civilisation. This appears to be in *Anser anser* and its tame descendants, as well as in the Chinese species (*Cynopsis cygnoides*), a strong tendency to the production of white mutants and from these the white variety of both species has been created. As a rule, the changes due to domestication (waddling and lessened ability to fly and deeper rump) are those that would naturally be produced by selection of specimens possessing the best marketable form.

The American Standard of Perfection recognises the following breeds of geese: Toulouse (gray), Embden (white), African (gray), Chinese (black, brown and white varieties), Wild or Canadian (gray) and Egyptian (coloured). Of these, the "Toulouse" seems to have been produced in France; its plumage much resembles that of *A. anser* but the colour patterns differ. The Embden has been obtained by North German breeders and around Westphalia by selecting white "sports" and breeding them.

The history of the "African" breed is somewhat uncertain. It is probably a cross between the Chinese goose, the Toulouse breed and some of the Embden. The fleshy protuberance on the beak is characteristic of domesticated forms of the Chinese species, also the black stripe on the back of the neck, while the plumage resembles to some extent that of the Toulouse goose. The 3 above-mentioned breeds are heavy and of market varieties, weighing from 17 to 25 lb. when properly fattened.

The Egyptian breed comes from an entirely different species (*Aythya aegyptiaca*) which has been of much importance to the domestic economy of Egypt ever since the beginning of history.

The Canadian goose is the domesticated wild goose of North America (*Canadensis*). It is easily tamed, but has little commercial importance as a domesticated breed. The Chinese goose (*Cygnus cygnoides*) is well and furnished a good quality of meat; it is the largest of all wild geese and weighs from 10 to 14 lb. It is yearly becoming more popular in the United States and deserves to be widely kept. All these species can be interbred freely in captivity.

**Parthenogenesis in the Silkworm.** - LECATON A. in *Comptes Rendus hebdomadaires de l'Académie des Sciences*, Vol. 162, No. 1, pp. 244-246. Paris, February 10, 1915.

Observations made in June 1914 and June 1915 (with moths of the mulberry breed) with a view to solving the vexed question of the parthenogenesis of *Bombyx mori*. The following conclusions were drawn:

1) Oviposition in the case of females that cannot mate becomes ev irregular.

2) A certain number of unfertilised eggs can undergo changes in form similar to those shown by fertilised eggs which develop normally. This is in agreement with previous observations.

3) Shaking unfertilised eggs is incapable of increasing the number. A change their colour. In this experiment the eggs were placed in cardboard boxes immediately after they were laid and shaken vigorously for minutes and again several times during the next 3 days.

4) The action of sulphuric acid (diluted in an equal volume of water and allowed to act for 5 minutes on unfertilised eggs) is also negative.

5) It seems logical to conclude, as all previous workers have done, that the changes of colour undergone by certain eggs are a proof that parthenogenesis occurs in the case of the silkworm; only a cytological study, however, is capable of deciding the question definitely.

**Food of the Rainbow Trout (*Salmo irideus* Gibb.) in Alpine Lakes.** - KAISER, ADOLF L. and FRIEDMANN J. W., in *Schweizerische Entomologische Zeitschrift*, Year 12, No. 12, pp. 325. Pfäfers (Zürich), December 1915.

A preliminary account of observations made early in October 1915 at the Hydrobiological Station at Davos (Switzerland). (1).

The fish under observation were 5 months old and were derived from the hatchery at Henweise, near Buchs. The plankton of Lake Sul, which forms the food of the larvae is chiefly composed of species of *Infusoria*, *Cyclops* and a Centropogid *Diaptomus denticornis* Wierz. The latter, which is red in colour owing to its carotin content, forms practically the entire food of the rainbow trout. Not only are the stomachs of the fry completely crammed with specimens of this crustacean but their eyes are coloured a vivid red by the carotin.

This is all the more curious in view of the fact that *Daphnia* form a much greater proportion of the plankton of the lake than *Diaptomus*, being sluggish in its movements, is much more easily caught than *Diaptomus* which is a good swimmer and very active. Parallel experiments with the fry of the common trout (*Trutta fario*) have shown that this latter is more catholic in its tastes.

This observation is regarded as being of considerable importance, as it throws light upon some common, but hitherto obscure, phenomena. It also confirms the results of several other authors. DR. G. SUMMERER's article on the stocking of alpine lakes with rainbow trout has already suggested that the red colour of the trout in lake Sul is due to the presence of large numbers of *Diaptomus*. Unfortunately, he omits to give the name of the species, which might possibly be *D. bacillifer* Kieddell, as the latter also shows the characteristic red colour. At the same time it may be assumed that *D. denticornis* was the species concerned, as *D. bacillifer* lives chiefly at altitudes ranging from 7900 to 8000 feet and, according to ZSCHOKKE, has only been found three times at a lower altitude than 5000 feet, whereas lake Sul is only 6,320 feet above sea level. Further the two species never occur together. More recently, LÄGER has concluded, from his experiments on the stocking of alpine lakes that, contrary to the previous opinion, the rainbow trout is the best species for this purpose.

In view of the fact that the rainbow trout of Lake Davos possess the same red flesh as those of Lake Sul and that *Diaptomus denticornis* forms practically the entire food, not only of the fry, but probably of the adult fish also, it may be concluded that the red coloration of the flesh of the rainbow trout in the alpine lakes is derived from *Diaptomus denticornis*.

We thus have the reason why the rainbow trout, contrary to expectation, does not leave Lake Davos, notwithstanding the fact that this latter has an outlet and the flow of the water is favourable. It is here that the fish find food to their taste such as does not occur, for instance, in the lakes of the plain, in spite of their richness in insects, larvae, small fish, &c. This theory is confirmed by the fact that the rainbow trout does not usually leave the lakes of the plain as a one or two year old fish, but only at maturity or thereabouts, as if it were then anxious to find a spot which would ensure a suitable food supply for the larvae.

The point of practical value in connection with these observations is that henceforward it will be possible to determine immediately whether or not an alpine lake is suitable for stocking with the larvae of *S. baicalicus*.

Where the plankton is shown to contain *Diaptomus dentigerus* this species will succeed well.

The red colour of *Diaptomus* cannot be the reason for the larvae preferring this species to the exclusion of all others but less obvious factors must be concerned, either of a purely mechanical or possibly of a biochemical nature. Undoubtedly, *Diaptomus* should be the cause of much more rapid growth on the part of the fish as, owing to their preference for this species, they eat considerably more than they would otherwise do.

*Cylops* and *Daphnia* are thus only eaten by young rainbow trout when there is nothing better to be had. If, however, the fish make such a selection from among the living plankton, it is obvious how little food must be made by such substitutes as pieces of spleen, brain, liver, fish meal etc. The degeneration observed in the fish of the waters of the plain is possibly due to the unsuitable diet in their early stages. In lake hatcheries this degeneration has not been observed. It follows from this that the hatcheries which can feed their larvae with *Diaptomus dentigerus* produce the healthiest and quickest growing fish. Breeding of *Salmo trutta* should therefore only be carried out in the alpine lakes and not in the plain. This method should enable breeding trout from alpine lakes to be substituted for those imported from their native waters, often at considerable expense, in order to reinvigorate the population of the waters of the plain.

## FARM ENGINEERING.

**Chaff-cutter with Curved Blade and Plate for Packing the Straw** *Illustr. d. Landwirtsch. Zeitsung*, 3rd Year, No 10, pp. 61-64, 4 figs. Berlin, Feb. 1, 1910.

The chaff-cutter patented by the firm of Heinrich Schrammeyer of Halsbergen, near Osnabrück, Germany, (German patent No 289 161) differs from others already in use, through the fact that the plate for compressing or packing the straw forms part of the feeding tube, being joined to the lower portion of this latter and pressing the straw against the side opposite, nearest to the blade. By means of this arrangement, the sheaves are well chaffed without having been previously opened out, *i. e.* just as they come in from the field.

The chaff-cutters employed hitherto have the following drawback: when cutting is begun, the sheaves being tied round the middle their ends only partially fill the orifice of the feeding tube, and they are consequently pressed unevenly in the plane of the blade. This latter does not meet with the resistance necessary for clean cutting and as a result a portion of the straw is crushed and torn instead of being properly cut.

To overcome this difficulty, in the new chaff-cutter the packing plate is arranged in such a way that directly the blade begins to act the plate presses the straw against the opposite side of the feeding tube and ensures a clean cut.



Fig. 1 shows the machine in side view and fig. 2 in front view. Figs. 3 and 4 show the method of working of the packing plate and of the chaff-cutting blade.

*Chaff-cutter with Curved Blade and Plate for Packing the Straw*

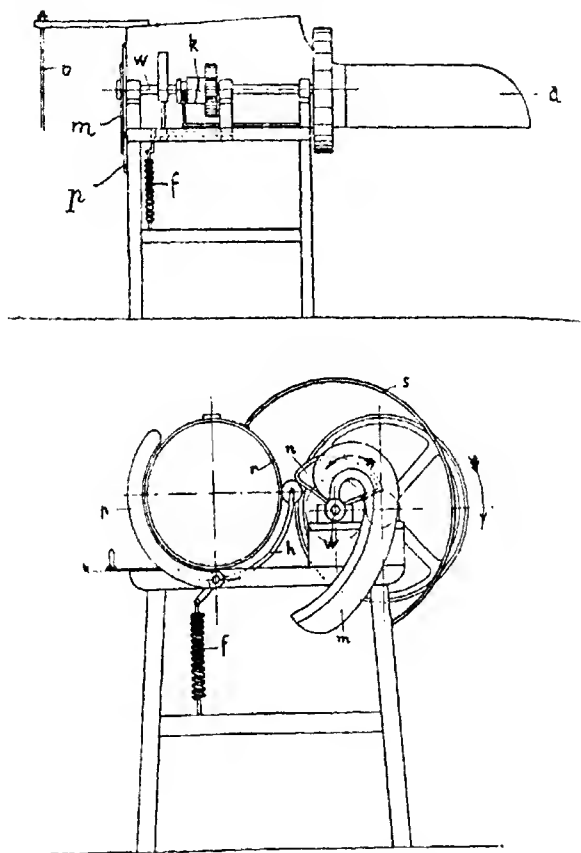


Fig. 1. — Machine in side view.

Fig. 2. — Machine in front view.

in fig. 3 the straw, still in its loose condition, does not completely fill the interior of the feeding tube and neither plate nor blade have yet begun

In fig. 4 the packing plate has pressed the end of the sheaf against opposite wall and the blade has begun to act.

Examination of the figures shows that (fig. 1) the curved plate *a* on which the sheaf is placed is followed by a cylindrical tube *r*, into which the sheaf is fed until stopped by a plate *b* adjustable according to the length of cut required. A curved plate *p* (figs. 2-3-4) is hinged to the lower part

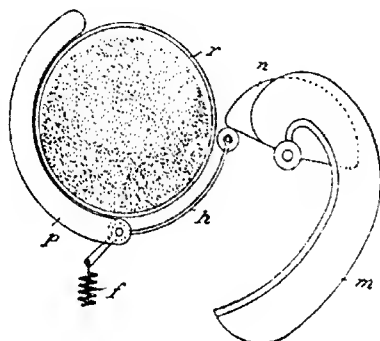


Fig. 3

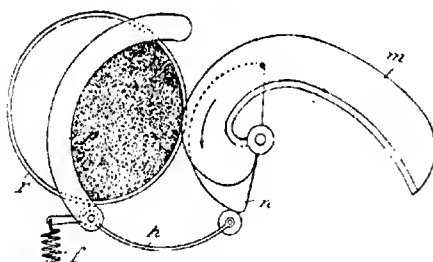


Fig. 4

Fig. 3 and 4. — Mode of action of blade and packer.

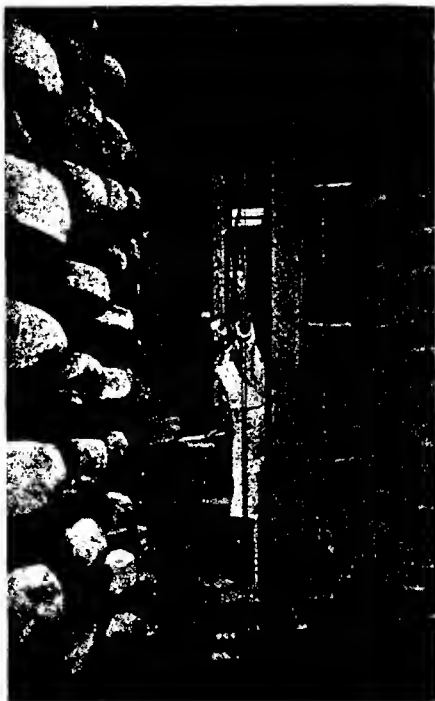
the feeding tube and is maintained in the open position by means of a spring *f*. A curved arm *h* is connected with the plate *p* and through the agency of a roller presses against the can *n* mounted on the shaft to the blade *m*. This latter, revolving in the direction of the arrow, grasps the plate *p* in scissor fashion; the knife is worked by a gear driven off the shaft. The bush *k* (fig. 1) enables it to be thrown in and out of gear at will. The blade is protected by a guard *s*.

— **Apparatus for the Cheese Curing Room.** — *Schwetzerische Milchzeitung*, Year 12, No. 14, p. 3, Schaffhausen, February 18, 1916.

Hitherto all the work of salting and cleaning cheeses in curing or store rooms required a good deal of labour, as every cheese had to be removed

from the shelves, carried to a table to be treated and then put back in its place, all by hand. When large and heavy cheeses have to be moved two or three times a week the work becomes especially fatiguing, as the cheeses on the upper shelves are often 10 or 12 feet from the ground.

M. DAVID LÖRTSCHER of St Gallen, the inventor of the cheese moving apparatus "Merkur" at present in general use, has devoted some time



Apparatus "Mars" for the manipulation of heavy cheeses.

to the study of the problem and has now invented the portable cheese moving table "Mars" worked by hand or power, which effectively saves 100 amount of labour in the curing or store room.

The apparatus, shown in the accompanying figure, consists of a table of lift mounted in a frame on rollers, so as to be easily moved in the passage

between the rows of shelves. The lift platform is suspended by two strong wire ropes between two uprights.

Part of the platform is occupied by a cleverly constructed salting table fitted with a device for turning the cheese over, leaving sufficient space for the workman. A 1½ HP. electric motor is sufficient to propel the whole apparatus forwards and backwards, or to raise close up to the top shelves or lower to the ground the platform and salting table together with the cheese and three heavy cheeses. The lift is fitted with automatic stops. The salting table and the platform are provided with rollers covered with rubber and worked by electricity.

When the table has been lifted to the proper height the rubber roller of the table is placed under the part of the cheese projecting beyond the shelf. The roller is set in motion and draws the cheese into the table where it is treated. By a simple device the heaviest cheeses are turned over without exertion on the part of the operator, and by reversing the motion of the roller the cheese is returned to its place on the shelf. For the lower cheeses the table is removed, the platform itself acting as table, being provided with the necessary rollers and turning device.

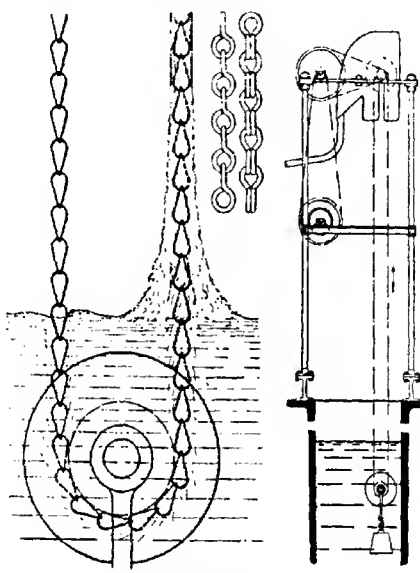
As electric power is not everywhere available this apparatus is also constructed for hand power. It is built in different sizes to suit any height or width of passage.

**Chain Pump or Conveyor.** — *The Practical Engineer*, Vol. 54, No. 1807, p. 20, London, January 13, 1916.

A number of chain pumps have already been devised, some consisting essentially of tubing fitted with piston disks, the chain merely connecting the disks, others of series of little buckets, and others again of a compound glass chain — carrying the liquid by capillarity and adhesion — which is moved by a central chain surrounded by two metal wire helical springs. Messrs J. C. GRANT and A. JARVIS have now found by experiment that water either alone or carrying solids in solution or suspension can be efficiently lifted by a simple bare chain, though the quantity varies considerably with the pattern and size of the chain. The form of chain found most suitable is the double jack chain, of which a few links are shown in the accompanying illustration, each link having a single and a double loop joined at right angles to each other.

The example illustrated is for raising water from a well. A small pulley having a V groove is mounted on a shaft supported on a framework above the well and driven by a hand wheel. Over the pulley passes an endless chain long enough to descend beneath the level of the water in the well and passing round a submerged weighted pulley, also V grooved. The upper pulley is mounted in a casing with a chute into which the water is discharged. On rotating the chain rapidly, the rising run lifts the water which forms a cone shaped mass at the surface and gradually assumes a cylindrical form round the chain. The upper pulley must be of small diameter to give a sudden change and direction to the chain and throw off the water. The submerged pulley may be of ample diameter. Sand and water even

in the proportion of 6 lbs. to a gallon can be readily lifted by the system, which has been patented.



Chain for conveying water.

#### 432 - Review of Patents.

##### *Tilling machines and implements*

|               |  |
|---------------|--|
| Denmark       | 29 842. Device for motor ploughs.                                    |
| Italy         | 150 283. Motor plough.   |
|               | 150 689. Improvements in the winding drums used for motor ploughing. |
|               | 150 851. Harrow.   |
| Spain         | 60 943. Plough beam.   |
|               | 61 155. Plough with twin bodies and only one mouldboard.             |
|               | 61 185. Improvements in disk harrows.                                |
| Sweden        | 39 624. Device for cultivators.                                      |
| Switzerland   | 71 775. Garden implement.  |
| United States | 1 104 774. Stalk cutter.   |
|               | 1 104 792 — 1 166 144. Cultivator attachment.                        |
|               | 1 165 097 — 1 168 135. Motor plough.                                 |
|               | 1 165 213 — 1 165 857. Harrows.                                      |
|               | 1 165 267. Reversible disk plough and cultivator.                    |

- 1 165 297. Ditching plough.
- 1 165 527. Harrow attachment for gang ploughs.
- 1 165 808 — 1 166 109 — 1 166 207 — 1 167 083. Ploughs.
- 1 166 135 — 1 166 446 — 1 167 122. Cultivators.
- 1 166 195. Cotton chopper and cultivator.
- 1 167 420. Motor plough and cultivator.
- 1 167 645. Weed cutter and pulverizing machine.
- 1 167 969. Combined drag and harrow.
- 1 168 138. Combined lister and fertilizer distributor.
- 1 168 201 — 1 168 202. Wheel cultivators.
- 1 166 208. Wheeled plough.

*Manure distributors.*

- 20 630. Rake fertilizer distributor.
- 20 630. Fertilizer distributor.
- 1 166 632. Straw spreading attachment for manure spreader.
- 1 165 642. Manure loader.

*Drills and sowing machines.*

- 20 869. Drill.
- 39 563. Share for drills.
- 19 756. Potato planting and manure distributing machine.
- 1 166 477 — 1 167 813. Seed and fertilizer distributor.
- 1 166 502 — 1 166 962. Planters.
- 1 167 438. Check-row corn planter.
- 1 167 515. Drill attachment.
- 1 167 551. Disk grain drill.
- 1 167 602. Seed feeding apparatus for cultivators with disks and elastic teeth.
- 1 167 907. Potato planting attachment.

*Reapers, mowers, and other harvesting machines.*

- 20 793. Canvas conveyor for binders.
- 20 821. Horse rake and stacker.
- 20 848. Reaper.
- 20 877. Sheaf carrier for reapers.
- 71 666. Device for lifting the cutter-bar of mowers and throwing them into and out of gear.
- 71 776. Apparatus for sharpening scythes.
- 19 797. Sheaf binding harvester.
- 1 164 691. Cutter bar for harvesting machines.
- 1 164 713. Mowing machines.
- 1 165 169. Guard means for the cutting mechanism of binders, mowers etc.
- 1 165 319 — 1 165 630 — 1 166 329. Grain shocking machine.
- 1 165 758. Corn harvester.
- 1 166 136. Side-delivery rake.
- 1 166 594. Hay unloader.
- 1 166 963. Attachment for hay rakes.
- 1 167 213. Seed harvesting attachment for mowing machines.
- 1 167 651. Hay loader.
- 1 167 739. Grain loading machine.
- 1 167 911. Grain carrier for harvesters.

*Machines for lifting root crops.*

- United States 1 166 053. Machine for topping beets.  
1 166 762. Beet harvesting machine.

*Threshing and winnowing machines.*

- Spain 60 287. New threshing machine.  
61 014. Machine for winnowing and grading all kinds of grain.  
61 269. Elevator ridle adaptable to any system of threshing.  
61 279. Improvements in threshing machines.  
United States 1 165 241. Threshing machine, maize sheller or like machine.  
1 165 766. Threshing machine.  
1 166 617. Corn husking machine.  
1 166 739. Pea and bean thresher.

*Machines and implements for the preparation and storage of grain, fodder, &c.*

- Spain 69 877. Frames for baling hay, straw cotton, cork etc.  
Switzerland 71 913. Electrostatic groats cleaning machine.  
United States 1 164 922. Baling press.  
1 167 858. Alfalfa meal grinder.  
1 167 871. Ensilage protector.

*Dairying machines and implements.*

- Denmark 20 813. Pul-sator for milking machines.  
20 849. Milking machine.  
20 855. Drum for separators.  
Netherlands 1 053. Implement for treating milk for the preparation of cheese.  
United Kingdom 20 417. Cow milkers.

*Other agricultural machines and implements.*

- Denmark 20 829. Pent kneading machine.  
British India 2 186. Improved methods of separating fibres from seeds and applying them thereto.  
Italy 150 211. Pincers for marking live stock.  
150 819. New sprayer for insecticides and anti-mildew liquids.  
Spain 60 945. Filtering plates for beetroot filtering presses.  
60 975. Machine for cutting cork slabs into sheets.  
61 010. Boring machine for discovering water at small and constant depth.  
61 084. Improvement in machines for sharpening the knives of machines for cutting cork disks.  
61 267. Apparatus for the carriage of bananas.  
Sweden 39 438. Overhead carrier for stables.  
Switzerland 71 877. Device for tying up vine canes.  
71 878. Device for pntying live stock in stables.  
United States 1 165 481. Steering device for tractors.  
1 165 708 — 1 166 246. Tractors.  
1 165 930. Motor driven tractor.  
1 167 302. Traction engine.

**Small Circular Reservoirs in Reinforced Cement.** — PARIS, RAFFAELLE, in *Giornale*

*edificazione della Domenica*, XXVIII Year, No. 1, p. 68, 3 figs. FIRENZA, Feb. 27, 1917.

The system proposed by the writer consists essentially in the construction of 2 walls of reinforced cement which form the sides of the embankment. These latter are connected transversely and thus ensure stability.



Impermeable clay bottom.

Fig. 1. — Vertical section through reservoir

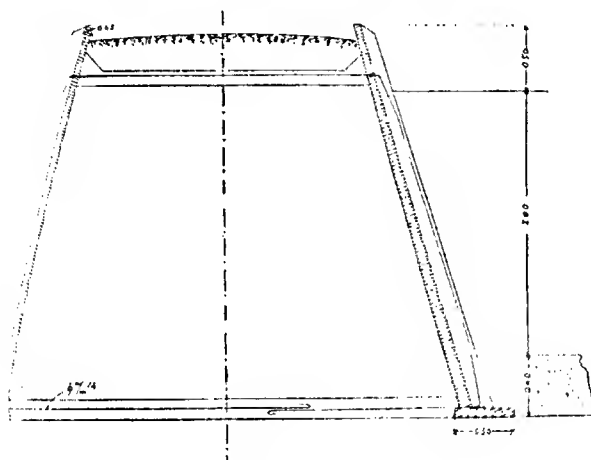


Fig. 2. — Vertical section of earth-filled embankment

about the necessity for constructing the ordinary embankments which are so much more costly.

By means of this system, the weight of earth necessary to oppose a great volume of water may be reduced to a minimum; the walls of reinforced cement render the sides impermeable. By covering the bottom with a layer of clay this latter is also rendered waterproof and the heavy expenses in connection with foundations are divided. As shown in Fig. 2, the walls are formed of cement tiles which may be reinforced with a network of metal. The tiles are strengthened at the cross joints by means of ribs; their length is thus limited to the distance between the said joints.

The expenses necessary for a plant sufficiently large to irrigate 61.8



acres supplying 5716 cubic feet of water per acre every 10 days are required at a little less than £400. Of this sum nearly £80 is required for a motor pump, estimating a difference in level of 82 feet and a flow of 144 gallons per second, and £278 for the construction of a reservoir of 100,000 cubic feet capacity (1).

434. **Effect of Temperature on the Strength of Concrete.** — *Engineering*, No. 2614, p. 109, London, February 4, 1916.

Much uncertainty still exists as to the time required before the concrete can be removed from reinforced and other concrete works, and loaded with safety.

With a view to contributing to the solution of the problem Mr. A. J. MAC DANIEL has made some interesting experiments at the Engineering Experiment Station of the University of Illinois in order to test the effect of temperature on the rate of increase in strength in concrete.

For this purpose over 150 cubes and cylinders of concrete were made and stored at mean temperatures ranging from 20.5° to 90.6° Fahrenheit, and tested after intervals of from 3 to 28 days. The concrete used was 1 part by weight "Universal" Portland cement with 2 parts sand and 4 parts crushed limestone, corresponding to 1 : 2.2 : 3.6 by volume.

The moulds were 6 inch cubes or cylinders 6 in. in diameter and 6 in. long or 8 in. in diameter and 16 in. long.

Some of the specimens were moulded at the temperature at which they were to be stored, most of them, however, were moulded in the laboratory and taken to the storage rooms after setting for 6 hours. In all cases they were kept moist. The figures obtained for the cubes were multiplied by 0.73 to make them comparable with the data obtained for the long cylinders.

At low temperatures the strength was found to increase slowly, provided the specimens were not alternately frozen and thawed, as this caused disintegration. At ordinary and comparatively high temperatures, higher curing stresses were reached in a given time and generally the stress seems to increase with the storage temperature.

The average stresses obtained with specimens stored at a mean temperature of 48.5° F. were 800 lb., 1130 lb. and 1410 lb. per square in. respectively after 7, 14 and 28 days, while for a set stored at 72.8° F. the figures were 1210 and 1530 lb. per sq. in. for the same periods.

As a result of these experiments Mr Mac Daniel concludes that for concrete hardening at from 60 to 70° F. the ratios of strength at 7, 14 and 28 days to the strength at 28 days may be taken as about 0.5, 0.75 and 1.0 respectively. The ratios are higher for high temperatures and lower for low temperatures. The actual strength of concrete after 1 week at a temperature of 60 to 70° F. would be practically double that of the same material kept at from 32 to 40° F.

(1) See also R. CAPPELLI and A. BRUTTINI. I serbatoi Cappelli in *Bollettino Società degli Agricoltori Italiani*, XVth Year, No. 2, Rome, January 31, 1915.

## RURAL ECONOMICS.

A diagram accompanying the article gives, with a fair degree of approximation, the strength attained by concrete kept at temperatures between 50 and 60° F. for periods ranging from 3 to 28 days.

**Extensive Use of Silos in Kansas, U. S. A.** — NICHOLS, J. W., in *The Country Gentleman*, Vol. LXXXI, No. 3, p. 108, Philadelphia, Jan. 15, 1916.

There are now more than 10,000 silos in the State of Kansas; in 1900 there were only 100. The leading silo counties are in the most prosperous regions. For example, Sedgwick, an especially rich county, has the lead with 1,712 silos, Reno comes next with 333 while Lyon and Sumner have 203 each. The greatest percentages of increase are found in the western regions. For example, the gain in Meade County in 1914 was 600 per cent; Barton 336; Rooks 244; Clark 210; Pratt 144; and Ford 142 per cent. This rapid increase is due largely to the activity of the State Experiment Station, which has demonstrated that silage from sorghum and kafir has a high a feeding value as that from maize. For instance, the average yield of Kansas orange sorghum at the Station farm at Manhattan the last two years has been 18 tons an acre. Fields of 12 to 15 tons an acre of sorghum and kafir corn in the eastern part of the State are common; in most all cases these yields are much larger than those of corn. The average yield decreases as one goes westward, but good yields of silage are obtained from the sorghum most years as far west as the Colorado line.

An even greater increase in silo building is expected in the future.

## RURAL ECONOMICS.

**Cash-renting and Share-renting in Missouri, United States.** — JOHNSON, O. R., in *The Country Gentleman*, Vol. LXXXI, p. 18, Philadelphia, January 1, 1916.

In a farm management survey made in North-western Missouri, figures gathered on the 660 farms showed that the average share tenant made 87 per cent greater net income than the cash tenant, and that a share of the crop paid the landowner 1.3 per cent higher interest on his investment than was received by the owner who rented for cash.

The following averages were obtained:

- a) the total net income of the average tenant who rented all his land on a share basis was \$ 548, the owner receiving 1.9 per cent;
- b) the average cash renter made \$ 410 and paid a rental that returned 1.6 per cent to the owner;
- c) the tenant who rented his crop land for a share and his grassland for cash made a net income of \$ 507; the owner received 5.0 per cent on his investment.

**Labor Income in Minnesota, United States.** — *The Country Gentleman*, Vol. LXXXI, No. 1, p. 18, Philadelphia, January 1, 1916.

In Rice Country, Minnesota, records were taken from 400 farms in 1915 to determine the relation between the number of units of labor on a farm and the labor income.

A unit of labor consists of ten hours of man labor or twenty hours of horse labor.

Labor income is the amount earned by a farmer in excess of the cost of the farm produce used by his household, and of farm expenses, and of interest on the investment at five per cent.

Dividing the 400 farms into groups according to the number of units of labor, we have: for the first group of farms with less than 400 units of labor, a labor income of \$ 97; for the second group of farms with 401 to 600 units of labor, a labor income of \$ 267; for the third group of farms with more than 1,000 units of labor, a labor income of \$ 607.

The efficiency of man labor is even more important than that of horse labor.

The labor income gradually increased from \$ 5, where the hours of each man for a year were 1500 or less, to \$ 633, where the hours of each man were more than 3500 each year.

The above results indicates that a farm business of more than average size gives opportunity for high efficiency of man and horse labor. A farm business of more than average size coupled with high labor efficiency brings profits in farming.

138 - **Advantage of Diversity in Farming Operations in the Central Wheat Belt Kansas.** F. S. A. — JOHNSON, R. C., in *The Breeder's Gazette*, Vol. LXVIII, No. 2, Chicago, December 30, 1916.

At the initiative of the Harvey Co., Kans., Farm Bureau survey were made on 70 farms in Macon township, a typical wheat section of the country, by P. E. McNall and County Agent F. P. Lane, in order to determine the influence of the high price of wheat on the farmers' labor income, and to ascertain whether the high prices quoted in the Chicago market (\$ 1.65 a bushel in Feb. 1915) were due to the farmers' holding wheat to secure extortionate prices.

Regarding the second item, the survey has shown that in September, 1914, 82 per cent of the wheat crop had already been sold at the average price of 90 cents per bushel, that is 12 cents more per bushel than the average received for wheat in this section for the last 10 years, not including 1914. This, together with the exceptionally large yield of 26.2 bushels per acre, as compared with an average yield for Harvey county for the 10 years of 15 bushels per acre, made it possible for the wheat farmer to realize a high labor income for 1914.

The average farmer in the community made a labor income of \$ 175 and, in addition, realized 5 per cent interest on a capital of \$ 22,733. These farmers, however, had produced a yield of only 15 bushels per acre and had received 78 cents per bushel, which were the average yield and price for this area for the last 10 years, their labor income would have been only \$ 451 per farm.

The income of the 15 better-paying farms amounted to 5 per cent interest on an investment of \$ 28,602 and, in addition, a labor income of \$ 3117 per year; these farms growing an average of 138.2 acres of wheat with an average yield of 26.2 bushels per acre.



The bamboo stems sold by the big grower should be some 1000 picked stems averaging  $19\frac{1}{2}$  to  $29\frac{1}{2}$  feet in length. There is a demand for the tops for which there is considerable demand among home and basket manufacturers who are prepared to pay them 18.7d per 100, according to the diameter. Including this secondary crop, therefore, a plantation may be said to produce, between the 4th and 5th year, nearly £1000 worth of stems.

According to the price lists of the chief French firms exporting bamboo stems the average retail prices for canes of various lengths are as follows:

| Length<br>metres | Width<br>millimetres | Price per 100<br>£ s. d. |
|------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 0.60             | 6                    | 1.5                      |
| 0.70             | 6.5                  | 1.7                      |
| 1.10             | 6.5                  | 2.6                      |
| 1.20             | 8-10                 | 2.9                      |
| 1.30             | 10-12                | 3.6                      |
| 1.50             | 12-15                | 69.6                     |
| 1.50             | 18-22                | 17.5                     |
| 2.00             | 12-15                | 11.1                     |
| 2.00             | 18-22                | 19.10                    |
| 3.50             | 35-55                | 5.10.1                   |

On the basis of these prices, the writer calculates that in the estimate of the value of the bamboos produced by a plantation the standard price of 6s. 4d. per 100 only represents  $\frac{1}{10}$ th of the real value for the home trade seeing that what are considered as picked stems by this latter trade are at least 30 to 40 mms. in diameter ( $1\frac{1}{8}$  to  $1\frac{3}{8}$  inches). This is additional evidence in favour of the cultivation of this crop in uncultivated land whether of plain, hill or mountain.

440 - **Cost of Running a Peach Orchard in North Carolina, U. S. A.** — PAGE A. W. *The Country Gentleman*, Vol. LXXX, No. 47, pp. 1759 and 1772. Philadelphia, N. S. 1915.

The farmers of Moore County, North Carolina, have established an organisation, known as the Sandhill Board of Trade, the chief object of which is to ascertain exact facts and conditions, and profits and losses on all farms and crops in the territory. The carefully tabulated information gained by this society is of real and practical value to the whole community.

The present writer takes as an example the case of peach growing, such as it appears from an examination of the books of the Carolina Peach Company, a little ninety-acre orchard which may be regarded as typical. It was planted in 1907 on land cleared of scrub oak and pine stumps.

receipts and expenses of the Company, from its beginning until Sept. 1, 1910, when the first small crop of peaches was sold, were as follows:

TABLE I. — *Statement for the Period Jan. 1, 1907 to Sept. 1, 1910*

*Receipts: 1907 to September 1, 1910*

|   |             |
|---|-------------|
| Stock:                                    |             |
| Paid for cash . . . . .                   | \$12,000.00 |
| Paid to promoter . . . . .                | 1,250.00    |
|   | \$13,250.00 |
| Cotton grown on an acre in 1909 . . . . . | 80.80       |
| Peas grown between trees . . . . .        | 14.00       |
| Wool sold . . . . .                       | 3.00        |
| Interest in the money invested . . . . .  | 6.28        |
| Banked open account . . . . .             | 101.74      |
| Peaches sold, 1910 . . . . .              | 1,001.26    |
|   | \$16,707.89 |

*Disbursements: 1907 to September 1, 1910*

|  |            |
|--|------------|
| 100 acres of wild land . . . . .                                       | \$8,800.00 |
| Building: 7-room house, 4-mile barn, shed and tenant's house . . . . . | 1,014.00   |
| 100 peach trees . . . . .  | 884.50     |
| Fence . . . . .  | 66.40      |
| Well . . . . .   | 144.50     |
| Total labor bill, including clearing land . . . . .                    | 1,000.00   |
| Fertilizer for 3½ years, including all crops . . . . .                 | 2,007.88   |
| Seed—corn, cotton, peas, etc. . . . .                                  | 20.00      |
| Pair mules and harness . . . . .                                       | 28.48      |
| Machinery, total . . . . .   | 474.00     |
| Feed for mules . . . . .   | 76.40      |
| Crates for peaches . . . . .   | 2,066      |
| Spraying material . . . . .  | 123.00     |
| Taxes . . . . .  | 102.08     |
| Legal expense, incorporating, etc. . . . .                             | 189.00     |
| Office expense, including auditor and travelling . . . . .             | 316.10     |
| Exchange on checks . . . . .   | 82         |
| Freight on peaches . . . . .   | 24.08      |
| Salary paid superintendent . . . . .                                   | 1,400.00   |
| Insurance . . . . .  | 50.00      |
| General expense, small miscellaneous items . . . . .                   | 186.68     |
| In superintendent's hands. Spent but not accounted for                 | 296.16     |
| Money loaned . . . . .   | 32.25      |
| Profit and loss . . . . .  | 54.53      |
| Promoter's bonus . . . . .   | 1,250.00   |

\$16,707.89

TABLE II. - *Statement for the 4 years' working 1911-1912-13-14*

|   | 1911       | 1912        | 1913        |            |
|---|------------|-------------|-------------|------------|
| INCOME.   |            |             |             |            |
| 1911 Peaches . . . . .  | \$1,979.52 |             |             |            |
| Mortgage . . . . .  | 2,928.99   |             |             |            |
| Bills payable . . . . .   | 1,990.00   |             |             |            |
|   | \$8,098.51 |             |             |            |
| 1912 Peaches . . . . .  | —          | \$10,131.69 |             |            |
| 1913 Peaches . . . . .  | —          | —           | \$15,130.80 |            |
| 1914 Peaches . . . . .  | —          | —           | —           | \$1,130.80 |
| EXPENSES.   |            |             |             |            |
| Mortgage and interest . . . . .                                 | \$2,132.99 | —           | —           |            |
| Taxes . . . . .   | 17.24      | \$28.70     | \$12.00     |            |
| Bills receivable . . . . .                                      | 60.00      | —           | —           |            |
| Interest, less discount . . . . .                               | —          | 78.15       | 62.10       |            |
| Legal fees . . . . .  | 6.00       | —           | —           |            |
| Fire insurance . . . . .  | —          | 41.93       | —           |            |
| Superintendent's salary . . . . .                               | 720.00     | 480.00      | 480.00      |            |
| Freight, expressage, telegrams, and telephone service . . . . . | 195.00     | 284.59      | 11.50       |            |
| Crates . . . . .  | 695.25     | 2,081.77    | 1,075.50    |            |
| Labor . . . . .   | 1,375.08   | 3,221.04    | 3,206.08    |            |
| Repairs, additional tools, etc. . . . .                         | 478.81     | 387.11      | 117.01      |            |
| Sundry supplies . . . . .                                       | 165.34     | 138.57      | 56.93       |            |
| Food, grain, etc. . . . .                                       | 17.05      | 219.46      | 216.52      |            |
| Superintendent, to account . . . . .                            | 97.48      | —           | —           |            |
| Charged proportion of cost of packing house . . . . .           | —          | 200.00      | 300.00      |            |
| Fruit trees . . . . .   | —          | 87.07       | 53.03       |            |
| Seeds . . . . .   | 27.12      | 33.75       | 12.00       |            |
| Fertilizer . . . . .  | 776.00     | 591.00      | 949.51      |            |
| Spraying material . . . . .                                     | 160.11     | 225.11      | 289.32      |            |
| Printing, stationery, postage, etc. . . . .                     | —          | —           | 25.10       |            |
| Bookkeeper and auditor . . . . .                                | 224.50     | —           | 80.00       |            |
| Depreciation on buildings . . . . .                             | 131.09     | —           | —           |            |
| Depreciation on machinery, etc. . . . .                         | —          | —           | —           |            |
| Cash on hand . . . . .  | 783.45     | —           | —           |            |
|   | \$8,098.51 | \$8,098.85  | \$8,008.50  |            |
| Balance, net profit on operations . . . . .                     |            | 2,332.84    | 8,122.30    |            |
|   | \$8,098.51 | \$10,431.69 | \$15,130.80 |            |

# RURAL ECONOMICS

## III. — Balance Sheet for 4 years' Working 1911-1912-1913-1914.

|   | 1911        | 1912        | 1913        | 1914        |
|---|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <b>ASSETS.</b>                          |             |             |             |             |
| Land, 100 acres . . . . .               | \$11,800.00 | \$11,800.00 | \$13,530.00 |             |
| Buildings . . . . .                     | 2,124.43    | 1,724.43    | 1,738.59    |             |
| Tools and implements, etc. . . . .      | 750.00      | 850.00      | 1,024.60    |             |
| Stock . . . . .                         | 750.00      | 550.00      | 1,050.00    |             |
| Seed and spraying material . . . . .    | 150.00      | 50.00       | 75.00       |             |
| Grain on hand . . . . .                 | 1,091.20    | 905.03      | 338.25      |             |
| Grain in storage . . . . .              | 97.70       | 92.70       | —           |             |
| Grain due company . . . . .             | 1,575.10    | —           | 24.00       |             |
| Grain stock, 100 shares . . . . .       | —           | —           | 1,000.00    |             |
| Grain on hand . . . . .                 | 100.00      | 300.00      | 510.00      |             |
| Grain on hand . . . . .                 | 51.00       | 50.00       | —           |             |
| Grain clearing new land . . . . .       | —           | —           | 103.00      |             |
| Grain new water service . . . . .       | —           | —           | 220.00      |             |
|   | \$15,800.00 | \$18,911.22 | \$10,488.05 | \$10,713.79 |
| <b>LIABILITIES.</b>                     |             |             |             |             |
| Capital stock . . . . .                 | \$13,870.00 | \$11,070.00 | \$11,070.00 | \$17,500.00 |
| Accounts payable . . . . .              | 1,000.00    | 1,700.00    | —           | —           |
| Grain payable . . . . .                 | —           | 268.24      | —           | —           |
| Superintendent, balance . . . . .       | —           | —           | 420.18      | —           |
| Grain total . . . . .                   | —           | 2,875.93    | —           | —           |
| Profit and loss account, 1913:          |             |             |             |             |
| Surplus 1912 . . . . .                  | \$2,875.93  |             |             |             |
| Less superintendent's share of          |             |             |             |             |
| profit, \$883.21, and sundry            |             |             |             |             |
| adjustments, \$64.37 . . . . .          | 646.68      |             |             |             |
| . . . . .                               | \$2,229.25  |             |             |             |
| Add 1913, \$8,122.30 Superin-           |             |             |             |             |
| tendent's share \$2,030.58 . . . . .    | 6,091.72    |             |             |             |
| . . . . .                               | \$8,320.97  |             |             |             |
| Dividend 1913, 45% . . . . .            | 6,331.50    |             |             |             |
| Surplus . . . . .                       | \$1,989.47  | —           | 1,089.47    | —           |
| Profit and loss account, 1914 . . . . . | 1,989.47    |             |             |             |
| Balance, 1913, less half amount         |             |             |             |             |
| of stock issued to superin-             |             |             |             |             |
| tendent . . . . .                       | 1,737.00    |             |             |             |
| . . . . .                               | 252.47      |             |             |             |
| Sundry adjustments . . . . .            | 33.17       |             |             |             |
| . . . . .                               | \$285.64    |             |             |             |
| Profit and dividend, treasury           |             |             |             |             |
| stock . . . . .                         | 250.00      |             |             |             |
| Dividend on 1914 . . . . .              | 4,277.05    |             |             |             |
| . . . . .                               | \$4,813.29  |             |             |             |
| Dividend, 1914, 15% . . . . .           | 2,629.50    |             |             |             |
| . . . . .                               | \$2,183.79  | —           | —           | 2,183.79    |
|   | \$15,800.00 | \$18,914.22 | \$10,488.05 | \$10,713.79 |



Success has been almost entirely due to the superintendent, whose interest was obtainable only on the condition that he be given a room in the orchard at the end of four year's work. As a result of the success of this interest the capital stock of the Company has been increased to \$175,300.

Out of the profits as shown in the accompanying balance sheet the company has also planted 25 acres of new trees, has built a big new house costing \$1,400, bought a new pair of mules, installed a water system, and added a larger spraying outfit.

#### III - The Practical Balance for a Successful Dairy Farm in the United States

WARREN, G. F., in *Hood's Dairyman*, pp. 710, 731, 732. Fort Atkinson, Wis., 1914.

In ordinary dairy-farming practice some of the most important factors for success are the size and diversity of the business, the crop and the receipts per cow. Each of these problems involves many details. For example, good receipts per cow involve the quality of the cow, the method of feeding and management and the marketing of the product. Another factor of more general character and of specific importance in the organisation of every agricultural enterprise is that of the distribution of the work during the year in such a way as to make the very best use of the labour at the disposal of the farm. In agriculture, as in all other manual occupations, a full year's work is normally necessary to make a profitable.

Enough facts about farming are now available to give us a knowledge of how much work it takes to make a full year. Cost accounts on many farms show that the entire care of a dairy cow, except raising the feed, requires 140 to 150 hours per year. Sometimes the work is done in two bodies.

Most successful farmers work about 2,500 to 3,000 hours in a year. If this is called a year's work, it would require 20 to 25 cows to provide full employment for one man. The writer has indeed actually visited several farms where one man does milk and care for 25 cows, but obviously such a plan is not practical. However, it is practical to have two men on for this number of cows and spend half their time at other work.

In order to compare farms and thereby learn what factors contribute to making a good profit, we must have some standard of comparison. Labour income, or the wages that the farmer makes for himself is the best means of comparison. To obtain the farmer's labour income all farm expenses are subtracted from the farm receipts. The difference represents the amount that the farmer and his money earned. Subtracting interest on the capital at 5 per cent, we get the labour income.

If some member of the family other than the operator helps with the farm work and does not receive wages, the amount that it would cost to hire this work is called an expense.

The writer then proceeds briefly to examine the influence of the chief factors: size of the farm, dairying combined with the crop production and the milk yield of each cow, on the labour income of the owner.

*Size of farm.* -- In the case of 142 farms in the county of St. Lawrence, New York, attention has been paid to the influence on the labour income

with the total number of cows and the milk production of each. In dairy dairying is the only important industry; 80 per cent of the income comes from the sale of dairy cattle and milk.

Good pastures are available, but not much good land is available for cash crops for sale. The only important crops are hay, maize for the milch cows. Practically all the grain feed for cows is purchased. Under such conditions, it is evident that the number of cows kept is a good gauge of the size of the business. The results for the 142 farms are set out in Table I.

TABLE I. — *Relation of Number of Cows to Labour Income in a Region Selling little but Dairy Products.*

| No. of cows        | Milk sold per cow |               |               |
|--------------------|-------------------|---------------|---------------|
|                    | \$ 75 or less     | \$ 75 - \$ 85 | Over \$ 85    |
|                    | Labour Income     | Labour Income | Labour Income |
| Under 20 . . . . . | \$ 300            | \$ 487        | \$ 415        |
| 20 - 30 . . . . .  | 397               | 780           | 1112          |
| Over 30 . . . . .  | 650               | 922           | 1771          |

As will be seen from the table, the farmers who have less than a man farm, that is, less than 20 cows, are on the average not making more than a hired man's wages. But those who have more cows are doing better.

Table II shows the relation of the size of farms to profits on 579 farms in Livingston county, New York. This is a grain growing, general farming dairy region.

TABLE II. — *Relation of Size of Farm to Labour Income in a Region that Combines Dairying with Cash Crops.*

| Acres Farmed       | No. of farms | Average area | Average tillable area | Labour income |
|--------------------|--------------|--------------|-----------------------|---------------|
| Under 20 . . . . . | 17           | 20           | 17                    | \$ 54         |
| 20 - 40 . . . . .  | 35           | 44           | 37                    | 295           |
| 40 - 60 . . . . .  | 147          | 79           | 64                    | 437           |
| 60 - 80 . . . . .  | 178          | 127          | 104                   | 594           |
| 80 - 100 . . . . . | 89           | 175          | 142                   | 931           |
| Over 100 . . . . . | 112          | 305          | 241                   | 1682          |

Source: *ibid.*, p. 12.

The results indicate that, on the average, in this region about 200 acres are required for a very successful farm. Of course, some of the farms are successful, but evidently they are working at a disadvantage. The larger farms are better equipped with horses and machinery, and therefore of these costs so much per acre as on the small places. One man is sufficient for 20 to 30 acres of general farm crops. If one is doing a great saving in human labour that comes from driving three and four teams, he evidently needs 80 or more acres of crops to keep them busy. A mixed farm requires for other reasons another 100 acres of horses, but in order to obviate over-working of the two labourers, the number of cows should be reduced to between 10 and 12. In the most dairy regions in the United States this means a 100-acre farm, the remaining 80 acres being used for pasture, woods, roads and farm buildings.

Several years ago, an agricultural journal made a study of farms rated by its subscribers. These farms averaged 167 acres and grew 20 acres of crops per farm besides pasture and woods. These farms kept an average of 16 cows and 6 horses. They are much larger than the average farm and make labor incomes much larger than the average farmer makes.

In the irrigated zone of Logan, Utah, instead of two or three cows being required to pasture one acre, as is the usual average in dairy regions, the rich soil and abundance of water make it possible to pasture two or sometimes three cows on one acre. Alfalfa gives large yields per acre. Sugar beets are the important cash crop. Under these unusual conditions a farm of 50 acres may be as large a business as 100 acres is in some other regions.

TABLE III. — *Relation of Receipts per Cow and Cash Crops to Labor on 585 Farms with 6 or more Cows, Jefferson County New York*

| Per cent. of receipts from Crops | Receipts per Cow from Milk and Its Products |               |               |
|----------------------------------|---|---------------|---------------|
|                                  | \$ 50 or less                               | \$ 51 - \$ 75 | Over 75       |
|                                  | Labour income                               | Labour income | Labour income |
| No crops sold . . . . .          | \$ 50                                       | \$ 57.2       | \$ 60.7       |
| 1-20 . . . . .                   | 311   | 589           | 702           |
| 21-50 . . . . .                  | 426   | 947           | 1117          |
| 51-60 . . . . .                  | 551   | 1366          | 1500          |
| Over 60 . . . . .                | 599   | •             | •             |

\* Only 2 farms in this group.

\*\* No farms in this group.

*Diversified and Specialised Dairy Farms.* — Table III shows that the men who derive at least a part of the income from the sale of cash

## RURAL ECONOMICS

287

| Type of work       | January | February | March | April | May | June | July | August | September | October | November | December |
|--------------------|---------|----------|-------|-------|-----|------|------|--------|-----------|---------|----------|----------|
| Stable of 42 cows: |         |          |       |       |     |      |      |        |           |         |          |          |
| 1 bull, 10 heifers | 625     | 470      | 407   | 528   | 433 | 350  | 868  | 363    | 204       | 303     | 372      | 510      |
| 9 Horses           | 37      | 23       | 50    | 45    | 64  | 55   | 37   | 31     | 37        | 50      | 23       | 31       |
| Mature             | 31      | 50       | 23    | 45    | 42  | —    | 37   | 92     | 69        | 34      | 56       | 37       |
| Pottions 1012      | —       | 50       | 193   | —     | —   | —    | —    | —      | —         | —       | —        | —        |
| Potatoes 107 acres | —       | —        | —     | 45    | 225 | 170  | 101  | 18     | —         | 221     | —        | —        |
| Maize 192 acres    | —       | —        | —     | 147   | 14  | 105  | 92   | 36     | 184       | 27      | —        | —        |
| Oats 435 acres     | —       | —        | —     | 110   | 110 | —    | 23   | 276    | —         | 266     | —        | —        |
| Oats 1014          | —       | —        | —     | —     | —   | —    | —    | —      | —         | —       | 73       | —        |
| Wheat 1144         | —       | —        | —     | —     | —   | —    | —    | 55     | 73        | —       | —        | —        |
| Hay 1017 acres     | —       | —        | —     | 201   | —   | —    | 728  | —      | —         | —       | —        | —        |
| Alfalfa 46 acres   | —       | —        | —     | —     | 18  | 55   | —    | —      | —         | —       | —        | —        |
| Cabbage 67 acres   | —       | —        | —     | —     | 23  | 165  | 15   | 60     | 18        | 116     | 23       | —        |
| Poultry 188 head   | 14      | 14       | 9     | 9     | 9   | 9    | 9    | 9      | 9         | 9       | 9        | 14       |
| Farm               | 14      | —        | —     | 18    | 110 | 103  | 61   | 135    | 221       | 55      | —        | —        |
| Stall              | 14      | 70       | 175   | 56    | 14  | 66   | 83   | —      | —         | —       | —        | 23       |
| Equipment          | —       | —        | —     | —     | —   | —    | 34   | —      | 60        | 18      | 16       | —        |

make much more than do those who sell nothing but dairy products. There are many reasons why it pays to combine crops with dairy farming. One reason is that two men can milk 15 to 20 cows and yet have half the time for field work. This is more time available than is necessary to grow feed for the cows. The horses kept on the farm also have time to grow crops than feed.

Another reason why such crops help is that the manure is much more effective when spread over more land than when it is all used on the crops that raises feed for the cows.

This point is well illustrated by a test continuing for 21 years at the Ohio Experiment Station. When 4 tons of manure were applied per acre every 3 years, each ton of manure gave increased crops worth \$1.44 per ton. But when twice as much manure was applied on the same land, the additional amount gave crops worth only \$1.05 per ton of added manure.

The dairyman is particularly fortunate if he can combine some high priced crop with dairy farming. In some States, fruit, potatoes, corn or cabbages are very profitable crops to combine with dairying. In irrigated regions sugar beets are commonly grown on dairy farms. All of these intensive crops give a very large return for manure.

In the maize belt one of the most profitable systems of farming is a combination of dairying and hog raising.

There are many reasons why at least some cattle should be kept. Cattle use up products that would have little value on the market, such as stalks and low grade hay. Perhaps the point of most importance is that they provide for a full day's and for a full year's work.

Table IV shows the annual distribution of man labour for a dairy farm giving excellent profits.

The labour is supplied by 3 men occupied the whole year round and a temporary outside help at harvest time. The dairy herd averages about 100 cows and 187 acres of crops are grown. The cash crops are the best for the region: potatoes, cabbage, timothy hay. The combination makes a very efficient business.

*Milk yield of individual cows.* — The importance of good returns per cow is shown in Table V, which gives results for 585 farms in Jefferson County. They are divided into 5 classes according to the average yield per cow.

Similar figures have also been obtained from several other dairy regions.

The principal problem in the organisation of a dairy farm consists in establishing a perfect balance between the 3 factors mentioned for a particular region. This being so, what is required is a careful examination of each of these factors in order to determine which of their number is capable of modification in order to obtain the best results.

The method of procedure for this analysis is exemplified in Table VI.

TABLE V. — *Relation of Receipts per Cow from Milk and its Products to Receipts on 585 Farms with 6 or more Cows in Jefferson County, New York*

| Receipts per cow  | Average receipts per cow | Number of farms | Total income |
|-------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| \$ 400 . . . . .  | \$ .22                   | 45              | \$ 241       |
| \$ 500 . . . . .  | .42                      | 178             | 304          |
| \$ 750 . . . . .  | .63                      | 221             | 564          |
| \$ 1000 . . . . . | .80                      | 111             | 600          |
| \$ 1000 . . . . . | 1.10                     | 30              | 1,320        |

TABLE VI. — *Relation of Various Factors to Profits.*

|   | Farm No. 1 | Farm No. 2 | Farm No. 3 |
|---|------------|------------|------------|
| Acres . . . . .   | 52         | 230        | 200        |
| Yield of crops . . . . .                                  | 20         | 133        | 100        |
| Number of cows . . . . .                                  | 11         | 20         | 32         |
| Receipts per cows . . . . .                               | \$ 110     | \$ 95      | \$ 90      |
| Receipts in relation to the average of locality . . . . . | double     | 1 1/4      | 1 1/4      |
| Percentage of receipts that come from crops . . . . .     | 21%        | 36%        | 4%         |
| Net income . . . . .                                      | \$ 980     | \$ 1664    | \$ 1144    |

As seen above, No 1 is a very well balanced farm but is too small. The 3 points in No 2 are the crop yields. A neighbour who had all the factors almost exactly the same, except that he had good crops, made a net income of \$ 2239. In the case of Farm III the owner had nothing to pay for his year's labour, yet he raised very much better crops than his neighbour, No 2, and kept more cows. His weak spot is in the returns from cows. If these were as good as on Farm No 2 this farmer should make at least \$ 1500.

**Profits and Loss in the Dairy Business of Chemung County, New York, United States.** — CHEMUNG M. B., in *American Agriculturist*, Vol. 96, No. 25, pp. 50, New York, December 18, 1915.

The Chemung County Farm Bureau has published the results of a careful research in order to ascertain the profits and loss in the dairy business of the County. The following points were determined:

- a) The feed cost of cows on each farm;
- b) The medium production per farm;

c) The relation between these two factors and the labor of the farmer.

The results are summarised in the two following tables; the first, which gives the average results for the whole County, and therefore for both hill and valley farms, while the second gives those of 115 valley farms. In each table the farms are divided into 5 groups according to their cash returns per cow.

TABLE I. — *Cost of feed per cow in Chemung County.*

| Gross receipts<br>for milk and butter<br>per cow | Feed<br>raised | Feed<br>purchased | Total<br>feed | Milk<br>and butter<br>receipts<br>per cow | Profit<br>above<br>feed cost |
|--|----------------|-------------------|---------------|---|------------------------------|
| \$ 50 and less . . . .                           | \$ 38          | 8 7               | 8 45          | 8 37                                      | \$ — 8                       |
| \$ 51 to \$ 75 . . . .                           | 40             | 11                | 51            | 62  | 11                           |
| \$ 76 to \$ 100 . . . .                          | 44             | 16                | 60            | 87  | 27                           |
| Over \$ 100 . . . .                              | 48             | 18                | 68            | 119                                       | 53                           |

TABLE II. — *Receipts per cow, 115 valley farms.*

|                          |       |     |      |       |        |
|--------------------------|-------|-----|------|-------|--------|
| \$ 50 and less . . . .   | \$ 42 | 8 7 | 8 49 | \$ 42 | \$ — 7 |
| \$ 51 to \$ 75 . . . .   | 47    | 8   | 55   | 63    | 8      |
| \$ 76 to \$ 100 . . . .  | 53    | 15  | 68   | 87    | 19     |
| \$ 101 to \$ 125 . . . . | 52    | 19  | 71   | 110   | 39     |
| Over \$ 125 . . . .      | 53    | 23  | 76   | 140   | 64     |

(1) The farmer's labor income is obtained by subtracting from the gross profit the taxes and the interest of capital at 5%; the labor furnished by members of the farm is figured in the expenses and is estimated according to the equivalent local labor remuneration; the farm produce taken for home use constitutes, on the other hand, a further benefit to the farmer besides the remuneration thus calculated for his personal labor and management.

Source: *Chemung County, Pennsylvania, 1910*, p. 10.

The five groups of farms, classified according to the average cash returns per cow, show a series of clearly defined relations represented, first place, by the progressive increase of the farmer's labor income; in proportion to the progressive increase of the average returns per cow, there is an increase of purchased feed in proportion to the increase of production of raised feed; by the increase in production of raised feed in proportion to the increase of total feed consumed, with a constantly progressive relation to purchased feed, and a less constant one to feed raised on the farm; it may therefore be concluded that, though the labor income in the several groups of farms thus divided is the result of factors that may have induced

## WINE MAKING

various ways, the first place among these factors must in practice be given to the average production of the cows. This production necessarily depends more upon the quality of the cows employed and upon the quantity of purchased feed they eat than upon the increase in price of the forage produced and consumed on the farm. The great difference to be seen in the average produce of the cows in single farms, and in the farmer's labor is chiefly due to the fact that in County Chemung there exists a cow-testing association, numbering 20 members, which has considerably raised the production on the farms belonging to members by eliminating the less productive cows.

In 1914, the average production of 278 cows was 6880 pounds of milk and 125 pounds of butter fat showing an average test of 3.6%.

## AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES.

**Methods of Testing Must.** — MENSI CARLO, in *La Stazione Sperimentale di Agricoltura*, Vol. XLIX, No. 1, pp. 35-38, Modena, 1910.

The writer gives a short account of the principles upon which the Geyer and Babo mustimeters are based and shows the errors which may arise in their use.

With regard to the tests of grapes and musts based on their sugar content, especially if this latter is determined by means of mustimeters, the writer observes that no account is taken of non-saccharine extractives, lactic acids, coloring matters etc. which are of considerable commercial and organoleptic importance, as it is these extractives which give the wine its distinctive character and distinguish it definitely from a simple alcoholic solution.

In the analysis of musts, it is considered that the Babo mustimeter should be abandoned and one of the two following methods adopted instead.

1) *Densimeters* giving the specific gravity of the musts to the third or of decimals. The specific gravity provides information of a more general type than that given by Babo's method; by the aid of the tables of WINDISCH (or of others which may eventually replace these latter) it enables the quantity of substances dissolved in the musts to be calculated.

2) *Saccharimeters*, also based on the tables of WINDISCH, giving the total quantity of substances dissolved in the musts and if necessary their density also.

Further, the composition of musts should be studied by more up-to-date methods than those now in use.

Six analyses of musts from the 1914 vintages show the practical application of the principles laid down by the writer.



144 - **The Milling of Rice and Its Mechanical and Chemical Effect upon the Grain.** WISE, F. H. and BROODWELL, A. W. (Office of Grain Standardisation and Laboratory) in *U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bulletin No. 330*, pp. 1-2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

These investigations concern two types of rice which constitute the bulk of the rice crop grown in the United States, viz: Honduras type, slender and slender; and Japan rice, smaller and nearly round in shape.

*Mechanical effects of milling.* — No figures are available showing the breakage of rice in mortar and pestle mills. It is believed, however, that the breakage was small and that decline in use of these latter was due to other economic factors, such as their comparatively small output.

The "plantation huller", a machine for cleaning rice for export, causes great breakage, especially to rice of the Honduras type. The following table shows the effect of milling in the plantation huller on Honduras rice.

| Milling stage.                | Grains per cent. |               |           |            |                      |
|-------------------------------|------------------|---------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|
|                               | Whole.           | Three quarts. | One half. | One third. | Less than one third. |
| After first hulling . . . . . | 32.0             | 12.7          | 44.1      | 7.0        | 1.2                  |
| Finished product . . . . .    | 9.6              | 8.8           | 38.8      | 24.8       | 18.0                 |

The effect of modern rice milling machinery is shown in the following figures for the mechanical analysis of 56 series of samples of Honduras rice and 25 samples of Japan rice collected from modern mills in Louisiana, Texas and Arkansas.

| Milling stage.  | Honduras rice<br>number of grains per cent. |                |           |            |                      | Japan rice<br>number of grains per cent. |                |           |            |                      |
|---|---|----------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|--|----------------|-----------|------------|----------------------|
|   | Whole.                                      | Three fourths. | One half. | One third. | Less than one third. | Whole.                                   | Three fourths. | One half. | One third. | Less than one third. |
| Hand machine . . . . .                                | 74.35                                       | 8.76           | 15.33     | 1.16       | 0.40                 | 92.38                                    | 2.38           | 4.35      | 0.65       | 0.24                 |
| Hullers and perling cone . . . . .                    | 52.51                                       | 13.38          | 24.73     | 5.67       | 3.71                 | 84.22                                    | 4.30           | 7.66      | 2.11       | 1.00                 |
| Brush (polishing without talc etc): in . . . . .      | 49.96                                       | 13.56          | 25.51     | 6.54       | 4.43                 | 80.37                                    | 4.89           | 8.54      | 3.55       | 2.15                 |
| out . . . . .   | 52.57                                       | 14.62          | 26.28     | 5.11       | 1.42                 | 82.52                                    | 4.84           | 8.06      | 2.55       | 1.53                 |
| Trumbles (for coating in the glucose state) . . . . . | 51.69                                       | 14.14          | 27.18     | 5.49       | 1.20                 | 82.57                                    | 4.70           | 8.29      | 2.11       | 1.03                 |

## RICE INDUSTRY

The five stages in the milling process at which these samples were taken are considered very significant. The first rice is from the paddy machine and shows the condition of the grain after the removal of its hull between the stones and the separation of the remaining portion of rough rice. This, then, is brown rice retaining the bran coat and germ nearly intact. Generally, the percentage of whole grains is comparatively large, but it is found that badly sun-cracked rice often shows a considerable amount of breakage even at this stage.

The next stage is concerned with the removal of the bran in the "luller" and pearling cone. The severe scouring to which the grain is subjected is shown in marked decrease in the percentage of whole grains. It is at this stage that most of the breakage in rice milling occurs.

The brush is the polishing machine for the removal of the finer particles of bran. This causes a very slight reduction in the percentage of whole grains, which is recovered in the feeding process, by the removal of the smaller fractions, as brewer's rice.

The final stage concerns the rolling and heating after the application of a coating of glucose and talc. A slight breakage also occurs here due to changes of temperature.

Corresponding to the decrease in the number of whole grains there is also a gradual decrease in the weight per 1000 grains during the milling process.

*Chemical Effect.* — The product from the "plantation huller" is lower in percentage of ash, ether extract and crude fibre than the rice from the old mortar-and-pestle mills, indicating a more thorough scouring of the grains in the huller. The changes in percentage composition are still greater in rice milled by modern machinery.

The ash content is reduced very markedly when the hulls are removed and one half of the ash which remains is removed by the scouring work of the hullers. During the remainder of the process the decrease is gradual. The total loss by the cleaning and polishing process (from paddy machine to trumbles) is 66 per cent or  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the total ash of the hulled rice. The percentage of fat or ether extract is generally increased by the removal of the hulls unless the stones are not properly adjusted so that some of the germ becomes removed. More than 75 per cent of the fat content of the hulled grain is removed in the hullers and the total loss of fat from the finished rice is 85 per cent.

With regard to the crude fibre content, 88 per cent is removed with the hulls and 73 per cent of the remainder during the scouring processes.

Only 10 per cent of the protein content of the hulled grain is removed in the scouring, showing that the aleurone layer is not removed.

Approximately 60 per cent of the pentosans is removed with the hulls and 32 per cent of the remainder during the scouring process.

These changes in chemical composition are much the same in both Japan and Honduras rice.

*Commercial products.* — Milled rice is graded according to the percentage of whole grains and the size of the particles. Thus Honduras

rice is marketed in four grades: 1) *Fancy head* or "*Head*" rice, consisting of about 80 per cent of whole grain and yielding about 50 lbs. per barrel of rough rice; 2) *Second head*, consisting of broken grains yielding 10 lbs. per barrel; 3) *screenings*; and 4) *brecker's rice* yielding respectively 10, 5, and 8 lbs.

*Effect of Milling on the Chemical Composition of Rice*

| Milling stage                  | Moisture | Ash      | Ether<br>extract | Crude<br>fibre | Protein  |
|--------------------------------|----------|----------|------------------|----------------|----------|
|                                | per cent | per cent | per cent         | per cent       | per cent |
| <i>Honduras Rice:</i>          |          |          |                  |                |          |
| Rough Rice . . . . .           | 11.27    | 5.40     | 1.58             | 8.67           | 7.48     |
| Rice from paddy machine . . .  | 12.32    | 1.18     | 1.79             | 0.99           | 8.51     |
| " hullers . . . . .            | 12.56    | 0.53     | 0.40             | 0.39           | 7.71     |
| " pearling cone . . . . .      | 12.50    | 0.47     | 0.28             | 0.30           | 7.88     |
| " brush . . . . .              | 11.89    | 0.30     | 0.25             | 0.30           | 8.06     |
| " trumble . . . . .            | 12.02    | 0.40     | 0.21             | 0.26           | 7.75     |
| Total loss in dry matter . . . | —        | 60.00    | 85.00            | 73.00          | 10.00    |
| <i>Japan Rice:</i>             |          |          |                  |                |          |
| Rough rice . . . . .           | 11.05    | 5.14     | 1.74             | 7.93           | 6.59     |
| Rice from paddy machine . . .  | 12.38    | 1.13     | 1.52             | 0.85           | 7.24     |
| " hullers . . . . .            | 13.70    | 9.70     | 0.66             | 0.42           | 6.82     |
| " pearling cone . . . . .      | 13.38    | 0.40     | 0.31             | 0.29           | 6.59     |
| " brush . . . . .              | 12.82    | 0.32     | 0.22             | 0.29           | 6.61     |
| " trumble . . . . .            | 12.56    | 0.34     | 0.19             | 0.29           | 6.47     |
| Total loss in dry matter . . . | —        | 70.00    | 87.00            | 66.00          | 12.00    |

Japan rice is marketed in 3 grades as follows: 1) *Fancy head* or "*head*" containing 90 per cent of whole grains and yielding 96 lbs. per barrel of rough rice; 2) *screenings* and 3) *brecker's rice*, each yielding 5 lbs. per barrel.

The mill yield of rice hulls approximates 30 lbs., that of rice bran 20 lbs. and that of rice polishings 6 lbs. per barrel of rough rice.

Chemical analyses of the various commercial grades of rice show slightly smaller percentage of ash, ether extract, and crude fibre in the higher than in the lower or more broken grades. The percentage of protein in the milled Honduras rice is somewhat higher than in the Japan rice.

Rice hulls contain but little ether extract or protein, but are very

side fibre and pentosans. Bran and polishings are rich in fat and when fresh and not adulterated with hulls are considered the best stock feed.

**The Utilisation of the Residues of Oil Extraction from Olives.** CHAMBERLAIN, *Bulletin de la Direction des études et de l'enseignement agricole*, 19th Year, No. 85, pp. 271, 272, Tunis, November-December 1915.

As a result of his research among the writings of such Latin writers as Varro etc. the writer has been able to identify the *margines* of the French olive growers with the *amara* of these ancients. Compared to modern practice which usually disregards this by-product these ancients advised its preservation and utilisation.

In order to preserve the *amara* it is boiled on leaving the press, until the juice is reduced by one half, it is then put into vessels in the same way as wine. The Latin agronomists were unanimous in recommending it as a *fertiliser* and as an *insecticide*. Cato recommended watering the olive and sterile fig trees with *amara* diluted in water. Columella and Palladius gave similar advice, the latter recommending the "cooked" state for treating the roots of vines. For the control of animal parasites of this latter plant and especially of *Pyralis*, Cato recommends the following method for its employment: after allowing *amara* to settle, concentrate to the consistency of honey, add  $\frac{1}{3}$  of refined bitumen and  $\frac{1}{4}$  of flowers of sulphur, and finally concentrate whole to the consistency of glue. The product is then spread on the leaves and branches. The same author also recommended the use of *amara* for sheep scab, ants, weevils and parasitic mites, and spoke of its uses as a preservative of skins, leather, wood, metal etc.

The neglect of this residue of the oil press by modern practice constitutes a considerable loss to agriculture. The olive may be regarded as yielding by weight:  $\frac{1}{3}$  of oil (maximum) and  $\frac{1}{3}$  of cake; the remaining  $\frac{1}{3}$  therefore be regarded as the quantity of "margins". The quantity of this product wasted yearly in France may be calculated as 80,000 metric tons. The following analysis by M. BERTAINCHAND will serve as a basis for the estimation of lost fertilising matters:

1 litre of "margins", density 1150-1155 contains in grams:

|                      |       |                              |      |
|----------------------|-------|------------------------------|------|
| Matter . . . . .     | 21.20 | Phosphoric acid . . . . .    | 0.39 |
| Oil . . . . .        | 12.44 | Chlorine . . . . .           | 2.52 |
| Water . . . . .      | 0.76  | Nitrogenous matter . . . . . | 3.98 |
| Impurities . . . . . | 0.58  |                              |      |

The annual loss would thus amount to:

|                              | metric tons |                           | metric tons |
|------------------------------|-------------|---------------------------|-------------|
| Matter . . . . .             | 19,300      | Lime . . . . .            | 600         |
| Phosphoric acid . . . . .    | 9,800       | Phosphoric acid . . . . . | 300         |
| Nitrogenous matter . . . . . | 3,200       |                           |             |

The whole of the above should be returned to the soil. The loss should not be great provided the "margins" are used in the same way as in Liguria and as advised by a number of writers (1).

The writer draws attention to the fact that COUPET and others have recommended the use of the "margins" as a fertiliser. In their trial as insecticide, either in powder or wash form, against insects for instance.

11° **A New Yeast Preparation for Use in the Estimation of Crystallizable Sugar Inversion.**—PELLET, H. in *Procès-Verbaux de l'Association des Chimistes de Distillerie*, Vol. XXXIII, Bulletin No. 1-3, pp. 12-13, Paris, September.

The above is an account of the different methods which have been proposed and applied for the estimation of crystallizable sugar by inversion by the aid of yeast or of its extracts with remarks on their advantages and drawbacks. A description is also given of a new method of rapid preparation of a highly active yeast which is devoid of diastase and is capable of conserving its properties for a long period.

It has been observed that on adding to the sugar solution 0.2 g. of salicylate of soda per 3 grms. of baker's yeast, liquefaction of the sugar is practically instantaneous. This syrup of yeast or of invertase is capable of retaining its qualities for a long period. When required for use it is only necessary to dilute 30 grms. in 100 cc. in order to obtain a yeast liquor which also keeps for a long period. For purposes of inversion 10 cc. are added to 50 cc. of the specially prepared sugar solution to be inverted (neutral and free from lead). The mixture is heated in the water bath for half an hour at 55° C., allowed to cool, made up to 100 cc. in volume and shaken. In the case of solutions of molasses addition is made of 1 g. of animal charcoal used for decolorising wines. The mixture is then filtered and a small quantity of dry tripoli added, the whole shaken and filtered afresh, care being taken to protect the filter and glass from oxidation. Polarisation is effected with the 200 or preferably with the 400 and the crystallisable sugar estimated by means of the ordinary formula with the substitution, however, for the constant 144 (CLERGEOT) of 141.8 (German formula and method) of the constant 141.8 or 141.9 (141.8).

The writer intends to return to the study of this constant and to indicate the exact method for its determination in each case.

The advantage of the yeast with addition of salicylate of soda is that it is easy to prepare and large quantities may be prepared at a time without necessity for preparing more or less pure solutions of invertine being avoided.

This decoction of invertine when added to the sugar solution is very active, the operation being completed after half an hour's heating at 55° C., instead of 4 or 5 hours.

Further, there is no cold alcoholic fermentation and the liquid does not require heating before the addition of the yeast.

(1) See B. December 1915, No. 1259

The method is capable of being applied to all the yeasts known. All that is required to be known is that the quantity of yeast added (3 grms. per 50 cc. of sugar solution) is sufficient to invert an amount equal to 10 grms. of crystallizable sugar in half an hour at 55° C., as in the case of the English yeast (a brewer's yeast of high fermenting capacity), in the case of the KIRCHER yeast (low fermentation) and in that of the Parisian baker's yeast.

The results obtained are very uniform and it is only necessary to take care in the preparation of the neutral solutions.

It is intended to treat of this latter process in a paper on the analysis of the products of the sugar industry by means of inventine.

**Cold Extraction of Cream of Tartar from Grape Marcs by Cambiaggi's Method.** (Continued.) In *Giornale Vinicolo Italiano*, 42nd Year, No. 7, pp. 121-124. Casale Monferrato, January 13, 1906.

The CAMBIAGGI method for the extraction of cream of tartar from grape marcs is based upon cold treatment with commercial soda. The cream of tartar, which is almost insoluble in pure water, readily dissolves in water containing soda, forming a double tartrate of sodium and potassium. The soda solution is passed through the mass of grape marcs from bottom to top, upwards and on emerging at the top, is reconducted in a similar manner through 4 other recipients. On leaving the 5th recipient, the liquor is treated with hydrochloric acid and the acid potassium tartrate is precipitated in the form of crystals. The mother liquors remaining are treated with lime and a new deposit obtained of calcium tartrate. The marcs are mechanically treated in order to integrate and compress them in a manner which will allow of a uniform washing through every layer of each layer. The recipients are square in section, each side 2 1/2 ft. in length and communicate with each other by means of holes of 10 cm. diameter opening in the partitions. At their slow rate of progress the liquors take 1 day to exhaust the contents of a recipient.

The process is completed by the scientific utilisation of the residue. The grape stones are extracted and being rich in oil and devoid of tannin are an excellent cattle feed. The skins, separated from the stalks and freed by means of the "hydro-extractor", dried and mixed with different substances, form a food already appreciated in the trade under the name of *anofarine*. MARCHI's experiments have shown that the small quantity of tartar remaining in the marcs is not only harmless to live stock even stimulates milk flow in dairy cows. One of the chief advantages of CAMBIAGGI's method is that it gives a pure cream of tartar and not a wine.

**Colour Changes due to Micro-organisms in the Distillates of Plants and Flowers.** (Continued.) RENE, in *Journal de Pharmacie et de Chimie*, 10th Year, 3th Series, Vol. XIII, No. 2, pp. 37-46. Paris, January 1906.

The distillates of plants and flowers, particularly those of orange flowers, are subject to deterioration correlated with the development of micro-organisms; they become turbid, viscous or thin; their odour and flavour are attenuated; their colour turns to yellow, green or violet.

The deterioration in orange flower water (which it is customary to keep in open recipients) has been attributed by BAENORVIN to the action of fungi, algae and bacteria.

The writer has recorded in a sample which he examined, the presence of a species of Mucorinae, *Hyphocrisis hyalodulorum* in the form of green flakes but has shown that the colouration is not due to this organism, as spores were absent. Whereas a drop of green orange flower water added to the healthy liquid, communicated to the latter the power of turning green, the former, when sterilised, no longer had this effect. The writer subsequently isolated a bacillus the description of which is as follows: elongate, length 4 to 5  $\mu$ , breadth 0.5  $\mu$ , grouped in masses, highly motile, aerobic, non-chromogenic. A slight variation in the composition of the nutritive substratum is sufficient to cause the secretion of a green matter on the part of the bacillus; there are thus certain factors which favour colouration.

These factors are: 1) oxygen and oxydisers (reducing agents, on the other hand, attenuate or bleach the cultures); 2) light, especially blue and ultra-violet rays (distilled essences should therefore be kept in dark and not in blue flasks as is too often done).

On the other hand, the formation of pigment is hindered by acids, by zinc and by certain metals (especially zinc); it is therefore advisable to keep all consignments of orange flower water in zinc flasks. An acid medium favours Mucorinae; a neutral or alkaline medium is favourable to bacilli.

The chromogenic principle appears to be a leucobase which turns red under the action of acids and green under that of alkalis. While the action of Mucorinae attenuates the perfume of the distillates of flowers, the deterioration of the colour often renders it more delicate.

This deterioration is not exclusive to orange flower water but strikes like an epidemic through the majority of the distillates (lettuce, rose, nard, namon, melissa). On the other hand, cherry laurel water offers a strong resistance, even after inoculation; the contained hydrocyanic acid acting as an antiseptic.

As a remedy, all the recipients through which the perfumes have to pass or in which they are to be kept should be washed by means of live steam under pressure or else of acidulated water.

400 - **Pasteurization of Milk in Modern Practice.** - AYERS S. HENRY, in *United States Department of Agriculture, Bulletin No. 312*, 16 pp. Washington, D. C., Jan. 5, 1914.

The writer gives a rapid review of the principal results of recent experiments on the pasteurization of milk. According to the results of his experiments, the pasteurization of milk appears to be the best means discovered so far of destroying, or at least rendering harmless, such pathogenic organisms as: *Bacillus tuberculosis*, *B. typhi*, *B. diphtheriae*, the dysentery bacillus, and, according to the results of still later experiments, the agents of foot and mouth disease, scarlet fever and septic sore throat.

The sterilization of milk by electricity and by ultra-violet rays is

is satisfactory for the destruction of bacteria, has not proved to be of value as a commercial process. (1).

During the last ten years there has been a rapid increase in the quantity of milk pasteurized, particularly in the larger cities. Milk investigations made in the United States, show that in 7 cities out of 6 with a population more than 500,000 each, more than 50 per cent of the milk is pasteurized. Out of 341 cities with over 10,000 inhabitants 51 have more than 50 per cent of their milk supply pasteurized, 116 have 11 to 50 per cent and 174 have 1 to 10 per cent pasteurized. In the remaining 131 cities the milk supply was not pasteurized. The general tendency is towards the pasteurization of all market milk.

At present, there are three processes of pasteurizing practised in the United States. The first is known as the flash, or continuous process, and consists in heating rapidly to the pasteurizing temperature, then cooling rapidly. In this process the milk is heated from 30 seconds to 1 minute only, usually at a temperature of 160° F. or above. The second is the holder process; this consists in heating the milk rapidly to temperatures of from 140° to 150° F. and holding it for approximately 30 minutes, after which it is rapidly cooled. The third process is known as pasteurizing in the bottle. The raw milk is put into bottles with watertight seal caps, or devices which fit over the tops and necks of the bottles, replacing the ordinary paper caps from the water, then immersing them in hot water until heated to 145° F. and holding them at that temperature for 30 or 30 minutes. The cooling is accomplished by gradually lowering the temperature of the water until that of the milk reaches 50° F. The author has also tried with good results another method of pasteurization, namely, a modification of the holder process, which consists in bottling and pasteurized milk at 145° F. in hot bottles which have been steamed for 30 minutes immediately before filling. The bottles are then capped with protective caps, and cooled by spraying or by forced cold air circulation. (2).

The process of pasteurization is frequently performed improperly. Results obtained in 1912 from 231 milk plants showed that 60 per cent of those which used the holder process pasteurized at the proper temperature. Among those which used the flash process only 57 per cent employed temperatures high enough to give satisfactory results. The pasteurization of milk by the holder process usually destroys about 90 per cent of the bacteria, but often the milk is re-infected during the cooling or filling of the bottles. In order to obtain a supply of sanitary milk in the cities a strict supervision of the milk plants is necessary, both as regards the cleanliness of the localities, the health of the cows, etc. In the control of pasteurization it is essential that the proper temperature be used and that the process be so performed that no re-infection takes place. This can best be accomplished by trained men who have authority to carry on such supervision, and by bacteriological control of the process. Bottles should be



marked "Pasteurized" and show the date and the temperature at which the milk was treated.

The number and kind of bacteria that survive pasteurization depend entirely on the temperature to which the milk is heated. Experiments made by the writer have shown that with pasteurization at a temperature of 145° F., the acid group of bacteria remains more numerous than the alkali and peptonizing groups; and moreover, that certain classes of streptococci and part of the colon bacilli contained in the milk may also survive that temperature. (1). One of the reasons of the objection to pasteurization is that it destroys the acid-coagulating bacteria and leaves the peptonizing bacteria living, but this reason is based on the results of high temperature pasteurization and is not applicable to the holder process now generally practised in the United States.

Pasteurization by the holder process is in all cases superior to the flash process. From a bacteriological standpoint, pasteurization at 145° F. gives assurance, so far as we know, of a complete destruction of disease-producing bacteria and at the same time leaves in the pasteurized milk the maximum percentage of the bacteria that cause milk to sour (lactic acid bacteria) and only a small percentage of those that cause it to rot (peptonizers), the milk thus remains sweet for a longer period. From a chemical standpoint the advantage of low temperatures lies in the fact that milk pasteurized at 145° F., for 30 minutes, does not undergo any appreciable chemical changes such as would affect its nutritive value or digestibility. It is now known to have little effect on the beneficial enzymes in milk and that the soluble phosphates of lime and magnesia do not become insoluble. (2). Pasteurization does not therefore injure the digestive or nutritive value of the milk even for feeding babies. According to the experiments made in this line by WELD, the slight difference was in favour of pasteurized milk. Finally, from an economic standpoint the cost of pasteurization is much smaller for the holder than for the flash process, the latter requiring 17 per cent more heat than the former.

From a series of tests in five establishments considered as representative of the average city milk plant, BOWEN found that the average cost of pasteurizing 1 gallon of milk is little more than three-tenths of a cent \$0.0031 (3). This includes all the expenses necessary for heating and cooling the milk, coal, cooling water, labor, interest on invested capital and repairs.

450 - **Advantages of Using Milk of Low Bacterial Content in Studying the Phenomena of Lactic Fermentation.** — BIERCK, R. and HOM, G., in *Schweizerisches Zentr. f. Milchwirtschaft*, Year 5, No. 2, pp. 12-14; No 3, pp. 19-23. Brouge, January 20, 1915, 1916.

The object of the writers is to increase our knowledge of the principles underlying the lactic fermentation test. Experiments are in progress at the Dairying and Bacteriological Institute of Berne-Liebefeld and to

(1) See *B.* July 1913, No. 804; *B.* Dec. 1914, No. 1173; *B.* June 1915, No. 643. — *U.S.*

(2) " " June 1913, No. 803.

(3) " " March 1915, No. 319.

will be published at intervals under the title of "Contributions to knowledge of the scientific principles underlying the lactic fermentation test." The present abstract is from the 1st portion of the series.

The researches of a large number of scientists, those of the present included, have shown that of the total number of bacteria contained in the milk immediately after drawing,  $10^{10}$  th are derived from the interior of the udder. Opinion is divided as to the properties of these bacteria, some they are considered to be harmless and without any effect whatever on the quality of the milk and its derivatives, while others hold the opposite opinion. The present writer obtained from 4 cows, years of aseptic milking, milk samples with very low bacterial content; average of 200-300 per 1 cc. The enumeration of the bacteria was carried out on cultures prepared by 3 different methods; the numbers were in complete agreement notwithstanding the fact that the experiments extended over 3 different periods, each of several days duration. The number of bacteria were found to vary from cow to cow, even when the animals were side by side in the same stable. Further, the species were almost constant for the same cow. Consequently, it may be safely concluded that these bacteria are derived from the interior of the udder and not from external sources.

The species found were: *Bacterium Güntheri* liquefactive in the milk of the 1st; white liquefying micrococci for the milk of the 3rd cow and liquefying micrococci and streptococci in the milk of the 4th. The fermentation test applied to these samples has shown that the liquefying *Bacterium Güntheri* is the chief factor exerting an unfavourable influence on the phenomena of lactic fermentation. This organism causes the formation of curd whose degree of consistency is intermediate between that of whey-curd and that of whey-curd.

It also produces a large amount of serum possessing a bitter flavour. In a milk sample containing almost exclusively liquefying white micrococci the curd formed was somewhat cheese like and in that containing streptococci in addition to the white micrococci, the consistency of the curd rather resembled that of whey-curd.

If these results are not sufficient in themselves to explain the whole of the unfavourable phenomena observed in the lactic fermentation test obtained from these same cows, at any rate they show that the bacteria of the udder are not always inoffensive and may possibly have injurious effects on the quality of the milk and its derivatives. The fact that apparently healthy cows may harbour, in the udder, during a period of several weeks, practically pure cultures of suspicious bacteria (*Bacterium Güntheri* liquefying and streptococci) merits attention. In future, when turning into the defects of milk and in attempting to explain special anomalies in the utilisation of milk, it will be advisable to make use of the samples of milk containing only bacteria from the udder.

454 - **Milk Quality as Determined by Modern Dairy Score Cards.**—(14)*New York Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin, No. 398, pp. 107-112.*

March 1913.

Dairy score cards were originally designed to instruct the farmer and to serve as a convenient record of sanitary conditions. They have led to a common belief that there is a relation between the score obtained and the quality of the milk produced by it. In order to prove or disprove this belief had any foundation, the writer has made a comparison between the bacterial content of the milk and the scores of 34 commercial dairies made on three representative cards; the first card is the Official Score Card of the Official Dairy Inspectors' Association, now adopted by 30 States; the second is the one in use by the State Board of Health; the third is the one in use by the New York City Board of Health; and the third the one then in use by the Department of the Agricultural College at Cornell University.

In order to obtain accurate results, the writer himself made an investigation of the three systems, making himself personally familiar with each card and the manner of its application.

The samples of night milk and morning milk from each plant examined, were taken daily directly from the can as it was placed on the milk station platform, taken at once to the laboratory and plated on lactose agar. The results of the comparison between the bacterial counts of the milk and the dairy scores of 34 farms are given by the writer in several tables and a diagram.

These results prove that no correlation whatever exists between the number of bacteria contained in the milk and the scores expressed on the cards. Dairies with high scores produced milk with relatively high bacterial counts, while the best quality of milk from a bacterial point of view was produced in low-scoring barns. On the other hand, the scores obtained by the three cards when applied to the same conditions generally agreed in the case of the three best dairies, while for the other 31 dairies there were instances of wide variations, so much so that dairies which should have been scored as "good" and even "excellent" according to one system would by another system be absolutely excluded. None of the 34 dairies under consideration scored below the exclusion point on either the New York or Official card, while 15 dairies scored below this point on the New York City card.

The writer believes that the reason for which no correlation exists between bacteria counts and the scores obtained by these three systems lies in the fact that a large number of the items included on the score cards have little or no effect upon the number of bacteria present in the milk, while too little emphasis is placed upon the factors which actually determine the quality of the milk. The results secured in this investigation show that the present dairy score cards cannot be satisfactorily used as a means of grading milk according to quality. There is little hope of designing a score card which will accomplish this purpose until all the factors which are thought to influence the quality of the milk in any way have been carefully studied and the influence of each determined and accurately measured. In this way

important factors can be singled out and given the proper values on the score card, thus strongly influencing the improvement in quality and quantity of the conditions of the milk supply.

#### The Detection of Added Water in Milk in India. L. VENKAT SWAMY, B. A.

*Research Institute, Pona, Bulletin No. 57, pp. Calcutta, 1935.*

The detection of added water in milk depends in Europe usually on the percentage of "solids not fat", which, according to English law, should not be less than 8.5 per cent. This method cannot, however, be applied in India, where the milk sold in towns consists of cows' and buffaloes' milk mixed. The percentage of solids-not-fat in these is not identical, that of buffaloes' milk being generally greater because of the higher percentage of proteins it contains. The mean percentage of 150 samples of milk taken from 48 buffaloes and as many cows was 0.8%; the probable error being  $\pm 0.14$ . The buffalo milk vendor can thus add from 10 to 20 per cent of water without fear of detection.

The method adopted was that of detecting added water by the freezing point of the milk, which, according to the Queensland Government standard, should not be higher than  $-0.55^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

During the last two years, opportunities have been taken of ascertaining the freezing point of genuine milks at Government dairies in India, the first of the samples being those of single cows or buffaloes. The amount of proteins contained in the milk affects the freezing point only in a minor degree, so that the freezing point of the two kinds of milk would be presumably about the same. The writer gives a table with the freezing points of 77 samples of cows' and buffaloes' milk tested in five different parts of India. The individual variations are considerable, but the samples have been mostly those of single animals, whereas the milk sold in towns is the mixed milk of a number, in which the variation is naturally less. The mean freezing point of all these 77 samples was  $-0.512^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and the probable error  $\pm 0.000907$ .

The effect on the freezing point of adding water to milk is substantially linear and may be expressed by the equation  $W = aX$ , where  $W$  = added water expressed in a percentage of the sample,  $X$  = F.P. of pure milk minus that of the sample;  $a$  = a constant. The writer has estimated the value of  $a$  in the equation from the freezing points of a series of portions of the same milk to which different (known) quantities of water had been added; the series of these tests yielded  $a = 17.2$ . As WINTER'S table gives  $t = -17.6$ , the writer holds the difference between the two to be immaterial and that  $-17.4$  may safely be taken as a good value. The equation then becomes  $W = 17.4(-0.512 - t)$  where  $t$  is the freezing point of the sample. Judging by the probable error which accompanies the mean value  $= 0.542^{\circ}\text{C}$ , a freezing point of  $-0.507^{\circ}\text{C}$ , is possible once in a hundred times in the case of the milk of a single cow or buffalo; such a case would indicate 6.1% added water. Such a case is not to be expected from mixed milks. Considering that the dairyman who waters his milk will not add so little as 5 per cent, it is quite certain that adulteration with

water can be detected by the chemist with certainty by the method based on the freezing point.

The writer, after some technical remarks on the manner of determining the freezing point, gives a table of the percentage of added water corresponding to the freezing point of the sample, ranging from  $-0.51^{\circ}\text{C}$ . to  $-0.247^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

151. **The Chromogenic Micro organisms of Cheese and their Presence in the Italian "Robbiola".** — DALLA TERRE GIULIO, in *Le Stazioni Sperimentali Agrarie*, Vol. XLIX, No. 1, pp. 59-67, Modena, 1916.

The writer first gives a list of the principal chromogenic micro organisms occurring in cheese, with notes on their action, and subsequently the results of a bacteriological analysis of a sample of "robbiola" cheese. The interior of the cheese was slightly spongy and the exterior covered by a thin yellow layer which enveloped the entire surface like a veil.

Two pieces were taken for analysis, one from the interior of the cheese in order to discover the micro-organism responsible for the sponginess and another from the outside in order to find the species producing the yellow colour.

In the first case, the action was due to a bacterium of the group *Coli-aerogenes-coli* (the writer uses this nomenclature in preference to the usual name of the group *Coli-aerogenes* in order to indicate that this micro-organism is nearer to *B. aerogenes* than to *B. coli*). Of the 13 million bacteria contained in 1 grm. of cheese, 200,000 belonged to the above named group. The remainder was made up chiefly of *B. lactis acidii*.

The principal characters of the micro-organism producing the yellow colouring matter are as follows:

Micrococcus 0.8 to 1  $\mu$  in diameter.

Produces a yellow or yellowish green substance.

Necessarily aerobic.

Coagulates the milk and dissolves the coagulate, giving an acid reaction.

If cultivated several times in succession it loses its colouring properties and also its odour.

A comparison with the numerous bacteria producing a yellow substance described by various authors (often very similar to one another) shows no resemblance to any of these latter. Certain of its properties might place it at some little distance from *Micr. chromoflavus* (Huss), but it differs from this species in the following points: 1) by its behaviour towards milk and potatoes; 2) by its odour; 3) by its colour, which tends towards a yellowish green whereas that of *Micr. chromoflavus* is yellow chrome; 4) by the colour produced at the surface of the cheese: yellow or yellowish-green whereas *Micr. chromoflavus* gives a yellowish or reddish brown.

The micrococcus in question must therefore be regarded as a distinct species.

**Fermented Milks** (1).—ROGERS L. A. in *United States Department of Agriculture*, Bulletin No. 310, 31 pp. Washington, January 16, 1916.

The writer gives a brief resumé of our present knowledge of the subject, as it is treated in numerous both popular and scientific publications, of these 82 of the most interesting and important are mentioned in the bibliography.

The use of fermented milks as a therapeutic agent is based on the assumption that they are able to combat the so-called auto-intoxication caused by the undue accumulation in the body, of toxic substances emanating from the intestinal tract. The lactic acid bacteria introduced into the digestive canal with the fermented milk would there multiply and replace the injurious bacteria which being in unfavourable conditions, would be given out. A particular bacterium now universally known as *Bacillus bulgaricus* is supposed to be especially active in suppressing the putrefactive bacteria, because of its vigorous development and characteristic ability to form acid in exceptionally large amounts from sugars, particularly milk sugar. COMENIDY, BELOKOVSKY, and HERRER have found that *Bacillus bulgaricus* introduced into the intestine with curdled milk is readily established there, persisting for a considerable time after the subject has ceased to take fermented milk. RANN concludes from his experiments that this bacillus persists in the intestine for only a few days after the ingestion of culture ceases, and in a recently published paper, he maintains that the difference between *B. bulgaricus* and certain acid forming bacteria which occur normally in the intestines, is so slight, that they can be distinguished only with difficulty, and he suggests that belief on the part of some investigators that *B. bulgaricus* becomes established in the intestines was caused by their inability to distinguish the two types. It is undoubtedly true that in many cases marked improvement has resulted from the ingestion of milk cultures made from *B. bulgaricus*, but it is by no means certain that the results which have been obtained by the use of milk cultures have been attributable to any peculiar virtue in the organism itself, or that the intestinal flora may have been radically changed by a fundamental change in the diet. In fact, DISTASO and SCHILLER, HERRER, KINDALL and REYGER have found that the nature of the bacterial flora of the intestines could be promptly and distinctly changed by a radical change from a diet high in protein to one in which carbohydrates predominated or vice versa. The conclusion seems obvious. The bacteria of the high-acid type, which are apparently normally present in the intestines, are stimulated by the unusual amount of milk sugar furnished by the milk diet and multiply to such an extent that the ordinary mixed flora is suppressed.

Although the fat is partially or entirely removed in fermented milks, their food value differs little from that of the fresh milk from which it is made. Any increased digestibility of the fermented milk is due, not so

1. See *B.* July 1911 No. 2215; *B.* Feb. 1912 No. 362; *B.* June 1912 No. 566; *B.* Aug. 1912 No. 717; *B.* March 1913 No. 701; *B.* Sept. 1913 No. 1086; *B.* Oct. 1913 No. 1086.

(Ed.).

much to change in the chemical nature, as to the fact that the milk is furnished in a precipitated and finely divided condition. In non-fermented milks is there any material cleavage of the casein in the digestion in the stomach. The fat is practically unchanged, but part only of the sugar is converted into acid, alcohol, or carbon dioxide. The last is believed to aid in the digestion of certain fermented milks.

In large cities several kinds of fermented milk are offered on the market, such as buttermilk, sometimes koumiss and kefir, but more often sterilized. In addition to these freshly prepared preparations, several tablets or capsules purporting to be pure and active cultures of the *Bacillus lacticus* are now offered for sale, to use for fermenting the milk. But these, when prepared with care, lose their efficiency very quickly, *B. l.* being apparently particularly sensitive to dessiccation; it is therefore advisable that manufacturers should place the date of manufacture on the package and state the time within which the tablets should be used.

*Buttermilk* is the by-product resulting when milk or cream is churned for butter. If cream is churned sour, the acidity is sufficient to coagulate the casein which in the churning process is broken up into very fine particles. These settle very slowly, and if the buttermilk is agitated occasionally it will retain its milky appearance. When the cream is allowed to sour spontaneously, many bacteria other than the true lactic bacteria will take part in the acid formation, and in addition to lactic acid the buttermilk may contain in small quantities acetic, succinic, and formic acids, and sometimes traces of alcohol. To assist and control to some extent the acid fermentation of cream, certain prepared cultures, or starters, may be used which contain selected lactic-acid bacteria. Buttermilk, therefore, is the water of the milk holding the sugar, acids, ash and other soluble constituents in solution and the finely divided particles of precipitated casein in suspension.

Chemically, buttermilk differs but little from skim milk. Only a rearrangement is necessary to bring about the physical change in the casein to obtain a perfect substitute for buttermilk. At the present time a large part of the so-called "buttermilk" sold in cities, and also the product sold under the name of "ripened milk" is simply soured skim-milk which has been churned or stirred in order to break up the curd. The writer gives directions for preparing this buttermilk both for market purposes and home use. The principal point is to secure a culture, or starter, which is merely milk containing the lactic acid bacteria free from other kinds. This may be obtained by allowing the milk to sour spontaneously, or by good artificial preparations. A more nearly uniform product is secured if the milk is pasteurized. The scorched taste which results from pasteurization at a high temperature is obscured by the acidity of the soured milk. After adding the starter, the temperature should be maintained between 21° and 24° C. (70° and 75° F.). As soon as a fine curd has been formed the milk should be cooled promptly to below 10° C. (50° F.) to prevent the contraction and toughening of the curd. A very refreshing and nutritious drink is obtained by adding sugar and lemon to buttermilk.

kefir is made from the milk of sheep, goats or cows in the Caucasus and neighbouring regions. It differs from most of the fermented milks in that it is made from a dried preparation and contains considerable quantities of alcohol and gas. Small, yellowish, convoluted grains are observed in kefir which are called seeds or "grains". The grains are made up of a mass of bacterial threads. In the outer layer yeast cells are found mingled with bacteria. These grains when dried are said to retain their vitality for several years. When they are added to the milk they swell and increase in size by forming new grains. HAMMARSTEN describes four organisms that he isolated from kefir. One is a yeast which he designates *Saccharomyces Kefir*; ferments glucose and cane sugar, but not lactose. Two of the organisms were of the lactic acid bacteria type, but differed from them in forming gas in lactated media. Another organism, to which he gives the name of *Bacillus kefir*, resembles *B. bulgaricus* but differs from it by forming gas from lactose and in being feebly motile. According to FREUDENREICH, the action of these four organisms in milk produces the typical kefir. NIKOLAIKOW gives only two organisms as essential to the production of kefir: *Bacillus coagulans* (evidently identical with the *Bacillus coagulans* of FREUDENREICH) and a kind of yeast fermenting lactose, dextrose, and cane sugar. The writer is of opinion that any combination of bacteria, or of both and yeasts that will produce a lactic acid and a mild alcoholic fermentation in milk, will make kefir, although to secure the most desirable flavour certain organisms are essential. HAMMARSTEN shows in the following table the changes brought about in cow's milk by this fermentation:

#### Chemical Analysis of Kefir.

| Constituents   | 2 days old | 4 days old | 6 days old |
|----------------|------------|------------|------------|
|                | per cent   | per cent   | per cent   |
| Water          | 85.71      | 85.86      | 85.64      |
| Protein        | .425       | .415       | .410       |
| Carbohydrate   | .671       | .689       | .680       |
| Organic acids  | 3.700      | 2.238      | 1.670      |
| Alcohol        | 3.619      | 3.630      | 3.626      |
| Gas            | .641       | .621       | .630       |
| Mineral matter | .667       | .832       | .890       |
| Total          | 1.230      | .810       | 1.100      |

Kefir grains cannot always be obtained, but a good imitation of kefir can be made by carrying on simultaneously in sealed bottles an alcoholic and a lactic fermentation. Better results can be obtained by inducing alcoholic fermentation in buttermilk. Ordinary bread yeast may be



used for the alcoholic fermentation, but as this yeast does not ferment lactose it is necessary to add cane sugar to the milk. The usual and detailed directions for preparing kefir.

The nomadic tribes of the plains of European Russia and the south-western Asia prepare a fermented drink called *koumiss* from milk. Care is taken to produce an acid and an alcoholic fermentation, the necessary bacteria and yeast being thus soon established. The composition of koumiss is shown in the following analysis taken from RICHMOND'S Dairy Chemistry:

*Composition of Koumiss made from mare's milk.*

| Constituents          | 1 day old | 8 days old |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
|                       | per cent  | per cent   |
| Water . . . . .       | 91.43     | 92.12      |
| Alcohol . . . . .     | 2.67      | 2.63       |
| Lactic acid . . . . . | .77       | 1.05       |
| Sugar . . . . .       | 1.63      | .50        |
| Casein . . . . .      | .77       | .53        |
| Albumin . . . . .     | .25       | .27        |
| Albumose . . . . .    | .98       | .76        |
| Fat . . . . .         | 1.16      | 1.12       |
| Ash . . . . .         | .35       | 0.35       |

It will be observed that this fermentation produces no change which could be expected to increase appreciably the digestibility of the various part of the milk, except the possible advantage of a finely divided curd. Kefir and koumiss are limpid, mildly acid and distinctly alcoholic. Yoghurt is a thick-curdled milk, decidedly acid and with very little alcohol. It is prepared from goat's, buffalo's or cow's milk in the countries bordering on the eastern end of the Mediterranean where it is known by different names. Unlike kefir there are no "seeds" through which fermentation can be transmitted, but the essential organism is sometimes preserved by drying the fermented milk and reducing the dry mass to powder. This constitutes the "podkwassa" or "mayak". The bacterium essential for the preparation of yoghurt, was probably first served by KERX (*Dispora caucasicum*) in 1881. Later, BEYERINCK discovered it (*Bacterium caucasicum*), and also FREUNDREICH (*B. caucasicus*). More recently, RIST and KOURHY (*Streptobacillus* and *Bacillus lebensis*). GRIGOROFF and COHENOV do not believe it is limited to the oriental fermented milks, and recent work by HASTINGS, NEMANN and HEFFERAN, indicates that this bacterium is widely distributed having been isolated from milk, soil, saliva, fæces, and various sources.

They are slender rods  $2\ \mu$  to  $6$  or  $8\ \mu$  in length, breadth usually about  $0.5\ \mu$ . Flagella and spores absent. Long chains frequently occur. Living cells are gram positive; dead cells are gram negative. This organism does not grow on ordinary media, but on whey, malt, and slowly on whey-agar and certain specially prepared media. Most varieties grow equally well in the presence or absence of oxygen. The ability to ferment sugar probably varies in different varieties. This organism growing alone in milk, forms usually a rather slimy, tenacious curd, which does not ordinarily separate from the whey even on long standing, and cannot be broken up into the smooth creamy condition essential to a good buttermilk. Better results are obtained by adding a culture of an ordinary lactic-acid organism; but the best results will be obtained by making buttermilk in the ordinary way and churning it with an equal quantity of milk curdled with the yoghurt organism. Yoghurt may be made palatable by adding two parts cold water, or better still cold aerated water, sugar and lemon juice or other fruit flavour, or chocolate syrup.

The writer concludes by giving directions for making yoghurt for commercial and for home use.

#### Biochemical Comparisons between Mature Beef and Immature Veal.

BERG W. W. (Biological Chemist, Bureau of Animal Industry) in *Journal of Clinical and Research*, Vol. V, No. 15, pp. 667-711, Washington D. C., January 10, 1916.

In both Europe and America immature veal is popularly regarded as difficult of digestion and unfit for human food.

These investigations were carried to compare immature veal (1-3 weeks old) with mature beef with regard to chemical composition, digestibility and physiological effects.

Determination of the nitrogen compounds showed no significant differences between the two kinds of meat. In artificial digestion experiments with acid pepsin and alkali trypsin, the veal digested as rapidly as the mature beef.

Cats were fed on a diet in which immature veal was the sole source of nitrogen. The young animals grew normally on the diet and the older ones excrete fat. A pair of cats after living two thirds of a year on the diet, produced a litter of healthy young kittens which continued on the veal diet with excellent growth.

These results indicate that immature veal is a very suitable meat when deficiencies in fat and possibly in small amounts of undetermined constituents are counter-balanced in the ordinary mixed diet.

#### Almond Growing and Trade in California.

BERGER G. W. in *The Monthly Bulletin of the United States Commission of Horticulture*, Vol. IV, No. 11, pp. 401-406, Sacramento, Cal., November 1, 1915.

According to the most recent statistics, the annual almond crop of California, for the least 10 years, has averaged about 3,000 tons. During the planting seasons of the last five years, the acreage set to almonds has been so large that little, if any, of the almond variety has remained in the hands of the nursery man at the close of the several seasons.

In the opinion of the writer, this increase in the almond production will oblige the growers for the future to cooperate and form strong organisations, in order to be able to sell the crop at a sufficient remunerative price, in spite of foreign competition. The annual consumption of shelled almonds in the United States amounts to about 16 000 tons, most of which come from abroad. Of these imported almonds, 80 per cent are shelled, while, so far, the native product is sold in the shell, especially from December to February.

In order to put an end to this state of affairs, on the initiative of the "California Almond Growers Exchange", a large almond-shelling establishment has been started at Sacramento; the capacity of the plant is 11 carload per day. The "California Almond Growers Exchange", of which the writer is President, began in 1910 with 11 local associations and 230 members, it now includes 18 associations and has nearly 900 members. About 80 per cent of the Californian crop is handled by the Exchange.

The writer is of opinion that within the next 5 years, the almond crop will be nearly 15 000 tons, and that the consumption could also be increased. Seeing the difficulties hitherto met with in the sale of the crop, the most important problem that presents itself to the almond grower in California is the marketing of the output. The positive results already obtained by the above-mentioned institution, which sells the almonds at a price, encourage the writer to hope that, in the future, this problem will be satisfactorily solved, and that the demand for almonds in America will be entirely supplied by the Californian product.

Brief reference is made to the unfavourable freight rates from California to the chief eastern markets, as compared with those paid for foreign products; and to the insufficient import duty, in view of the lower cost of labour in the exporting countries.

457 - **Trade Standard for the Sale of Wine Lees and Tartar.** — *Giornale Vinicolo*, 1916, Year 12, No. 4, pp. 66-68. Casal Monferrato, January 23, 1916.

The price of wine lees and tartar is fixed, not only according to the content in tartaric acid or in bitartrate of potash, but also on the basis of an average standard accepted by the trade. For lees, this standard is 68 per cent tartaric acid and 23 per cent bitartrate of potash; for tartar, 68 per cent tartaric acid and 80 per cent bitartrate of potash.

458 - **The Sale of Eggs and Poultry in Massachusetts under Guarantee.** — *The American Agriculturist*, Vol. 96, N. 23, p. 14, New York, December 4, 1913.

The Massachusetts Poultry Society has adopted, for the use of its members, an official poultry products guarantee seal for both eggs and dressed poultry for the market.

The use of the seal is limited to those members of the society who will agree to the following rules:

- 1) That poultry and eggs shall be produced under clean and satisfactory conditions.
- 2) The poultry and killing houses shall be open at all reasonable times to inspection by members of the executive committee of said association.

- 3) Eggs shall be gathered at least once a day, and when shipped or sold shall be not more than seven days old.
- 4) No unwholesome food shall be fed to the poultry.
- 5) Shells shall be clean in every case.
- 6) No eggs which have been in an incubator shall be shipped or sold under said seal.
- 7) Eggs shall weigh not less than 24 ounces to the dozen.
- 8) Dressed poultry shall be fresh killed.
- 9) No diseased poultry shall be killed and sold for table use.
- 10) The right to use said seal is forfeited whenever this agreement in any respect violated, the member being held to reimburse said association for all payments and expenses made and incurred by it (after investigation and satisfactory proof) by reason and on account of inferior quality of poultry products shipped or sold under said seal.

## PLANT DISEASES

### DISEASES NOT DUE TO PARASITES OR OF UNKNOWN ORIGIN.

450. **The Influence of Meteorological Factors on the Development of Plant Diseases.**  
— DOROGIN G. I., in *Materialy po Mikrobiologii i Fitopatologii Rossii*, 1st Vol. 1915,  
pp. 30 (with 1 graph). Petrograd, 1915.

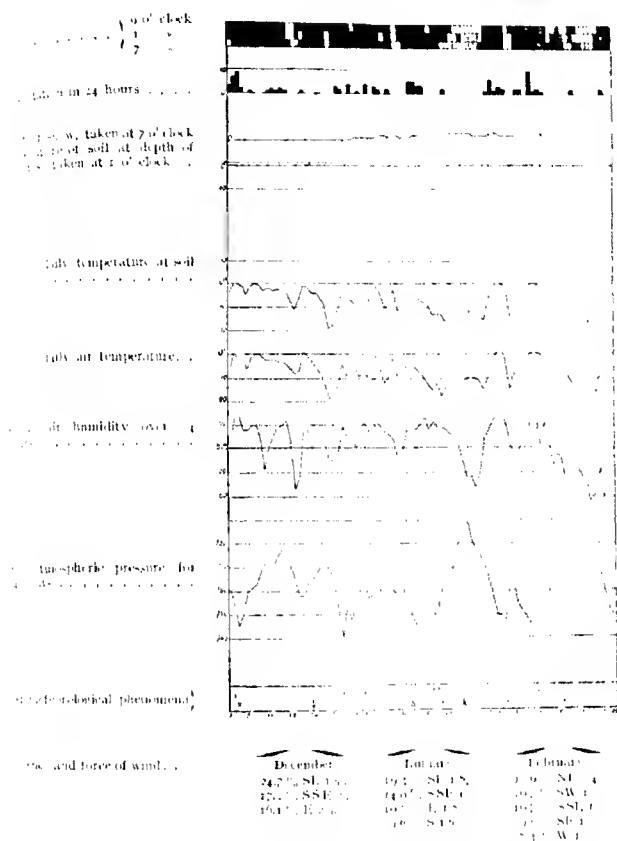
Although it has been long known that meteorological factors exercise a very definite influence upon the appearance and propagation of plant diseases, practically no continuous and methodic work has yet been done on this important problem. The Bureau of Mycology and Phytopathology, or the Russian Ministry of Agriculture, aware of the necessity for a continuous series of observations on the development of fungoid diseases in relation to the progress of the weather, has set aside a chapter in its quarterly Bulletin for the publication of meteorological data, accompanied by graphs and diagrams. Observations are made of the following: air temperature, soil temperature (at surface and at depth of 16 to 25 cms.), relative humidity of atmosphere, humidity of soil at surface and at a depth of 16 to 25 cms., total precipitation, cloudiness, depth of snow, frequency and force of prevailing winds. Note is also taken of variable meteorological phenomena, such as extremely high and extremely low temperatures, frosts, hoar-frosts, hail etc. the action of which on plants is obvious.

In order to simplify reference to the Bulletin and its diagrams instead of the usual 3 observations daily, in certain cases an average is taken for 24 hours or simply of 10 days. Although changes in atmospheric pressure have no perceptible influence on plants, a pressure curve is included in the diagram in order to complete the data.

The following rules have been established for the construction of the diagrams:

- 1) Values equivalent to 0.5 are indicated in the middle of the square; values above 0.5 are taken as equal to 1 and lower values are not indicated at all.

## Winter 1914-15.



2) When the thickness of snow is inferior to 0.5 decimeters it is indicated by a single line which practically coincides with zero.

3) The soil temperature at a depth of 25 cms. from 0.5" to 0.9" is indicated as equivalent to 0.5.

4) The quantity of rain from 0.5 to 0.9 mm. is indicated by a single line.

5) Cloudiness equal to 4 (sky totally covered) is shown in black; cloudiness equal to 1, 2, 3 (sky 1/4, 1/2, 3/4 covered) in gray. In the case of complete absence of cloud there remains a white square at the corresponding point of the diagram.

- 460 - Yellowing of Sugar Beets in France during 1915 (1). — ARNAUD, J., *d'Agriculture pratique*, Vol. 29, No. 3, p. 50, Paris, February 10, 1916.

With reference to the yellowing of sugar-beets observed in the north of France during the summer of 1915, the writer excludes any speculation on the part of a pathogenic agent and is of opinion that the disease is due entirely to meteorological and cultural causes. It is considered to be due in light, sandy, dry soils containing little nitrogen, and similarly in clayey soil of higher ground, the beets must have suffered from want of sufficient water, lack of cultivation and the smaller amount of nitrogenous fertilisers applied, and late sowing.

On the specimens examined were found various fungoid and bacterial parasites (*Cercospora beticola*, *Uromyces Betae*, *Phoma tabifica* and *Phoma conyni*) but they are not considered as being of any importance with regard to the production of the disease.

#### DISEASES DUE TO BACTERIA, FUNGI AND OTHER LOWER PLANTS.

- 461 - Contribution to the Mycological Flora in the Neighbourhood of Kieff (Russia). JAWORSKI, A., in *Burowo po Mikologiji i Fitopatologii Uenago Comitate Znanosti i Zemledelija, Materiali po Mikologiji i Fitopatologii Rossii*, Year I, Part 2, p. 11, Plag. 1-14. Petrograd, 1915.

A list of 72 Hymenocyetes collected near Kieff between 1912 and 1915. Among the species injurious to cultivated or useful plants: *Exobasidium Vaccinii* Woronine on *Vaccinium Vitis-Idaea*; *Strobilomyces sulum* Pers., on the trunks of hazel, oak and birch; *Merulius laevis* (Wulf.) Schum.; *Daedalea quercina* (Linn.) Pers.; *Trametes porii* (L.) Polyporus (*Fomes*) *pinicola* Fries and *Polyporus* (*Fomes*) *fomentarius* L.

The last is nearly always found on birch, less frequently on poplar and alder. The fungus which develops on poplar differs from the characteristic form on birch, by its fructifying organs being less consistent and most devoid of concentric furrows.

Among the Polyporaceae are: *Polyporus Schaefferii* Fr., *P. sarcophagus* Fr., *P. suljurus* Fr., *P. imberbis* Fr., and *P. betulinus* Fr.

- 462 - Contribution to the Mycological Flora of the District of Tersk (Caucasus). VORONICHIN L. J., in *Burowo po Mikologiji i Fitopatologii Uenago Comitate Znanosti i Zemledelija, Materiali po Mikologiji i Fitopatologii Rossii*, Year I, Part II, p. 11, Petrograd, 1915.

A list of 91 species of parasitic and saprophytic fungi collected during the summer of 1914 in the district of Tersk. The following are of economic importance: *Cercospora Lini* Woronich., on the leaves of *Linum catharticum* Waldst. and Rit. and *Rhodosticta onobrychidis* Woronich., on the leaves of *Onobrychis sativa* Lam.

(1) See also B. Jan. 1916 No. 117, and B. March, 1916 No. 337.

Eleven species are recorded for the first time in Russia: *Puccinia pteridis* Lagerh., on the leaves of *Taraxacum* sp.; *Phyllosticta faginea* Peck., on the leaves of beech; *Phyll. physaleos* Sacc., on the leaves of *Physalis alkekengi* L.; *Cytospora filiae* Sacc., on the leaves of lime; *Stagonospora crepus* Hollós, on the leaves of *Sorbus* sp.; *Septoria cruciatæ* Rob. and Desm., on the leaves of *Galium cruciatum* Scop.; *S. melicæ* Pass., on the leaves of *Galium uniflora* Retz.; *S. nepetæ* El. A. E., on the leaves of *Nepeta cataria* L.; *S. pœa trivialis* Cocc., on the leaves of *Poa nemoralis* L.; *Marsonia majuscula* Sacc., on the leaves of *Melandrium album* Ga.; *Cercosporella veratrum* Peck., on the leaves of *Veratrum album* L.; *Ramularia crucephala* Sacc., on the leaves of *Astrantia major* L., and *Cercospora cypripedii* Ell. et Desm., on the leaves of *Epipactis latifolia* Al.

Amongst the species most injurious both to cultivated and to wild plants are: *Septoria piricola* Desm. and *Gymnosporangium sabinae* Wint., on pear; *Microstoma juglandis* Sacc., which attacks the leaves of walnut; *Helia cinerea* Bonord., which produces fruit rot, and *Clasterosporium asphilitum* Aderh., which attacks the leaves of *Cerasus*.

Widely spread and common in the zone explored by the writer are also *Cercospora fraxini* Sacc. and *Septogloeum ulmi* Br. et Cav., on the foliage of ash and of elm; more rare are: *Odium dubium* Jacz. and *Phyllosticta faginea* Peck., which is found on beech.

#### Contribution to the Mycological Flora of the District of Suchum. (Russia)

SIEMASZKO V., in *Bullet. po Mikologii i Fitopatologii. Uchenye Zapiski Zenskavskoi Akademii. Materialy po Mikologii i Fitopatologii Kavkaza*, 1913, pp. 13-14, 1125-1936. Petrograd, 1915.

A list of 217 species of fungi collected during the autumn of 1913 and during 1914 in the district of Suchum and other parts of Transcaucasia along the coasts of the Black Sea.

The following are new to science: 1) *Mycosphaerella phaseolorum* Siemaszko, a Pyrenomyceete which, occurring on the leaves of *Glycine soja*, *Pithecellobium mungo*, and *Vigna rubia*, forms whitish spots with a darker border; this fungus is very similar to *Mycosphaerella phaseolicola* (Desm.) Sacc., from which, however, it differs in shape and in the dimensions of the spores; 2) *Sphaeridina suchunica* Siemaszko, another Pyrenomyceete, which was found on the leaves of *Gossypium herbaceum* and *Hibiscus exaltatus*;

*Evobasidium citri* Siemaszko, which attacks the unripe fruit of *Citrus* sp. on which it develops as a whitish, hard, sclerotic crust; mandarin is the favourite host-plant; this disease resembles very closely in its external characters the "mealmaturation" of the lemon of SAVASTANO and "white rot of lemons" described by Briosi and FARNETI, which, according to these writers, is due to *Ocularia citri* Br. et Farneti, together with several other fungi; 4) *Cercosporella epimedi* Siemaszko, which forms on the leaves of *Epimedium pinnatum* var. *colchicum*, large round spots of a dirty white with dark-grey border; this fungus was found in a forest on the banks of the river Kelossuri near Suchum; 5) *Ramularia trachystemonis* Siemaszko which forms a whitish veil on the leaves of *Trachystemon orien-*



*talis*; 6) *Cercospora guizotiae* Siemaszko, which causes grey spots on the leaves of *Guizotia oleifera*.

- 164 **New Record of *Puccinia Galanthi*, in Austria.** — KRÜSSLER K. in *Botanische Zeitschrift*, Year 65, No. 78, pp. 230-238, Vienna, 1915.

In 1833 a new fungus was reported by UNGER as occurring on the leaves of *Galanthus nivalis* taken from the meadows near Stockerau, Austria. He named this fungus *Puccinia Galanthi*, but no accurate description was made. The parasite was lost sight of for a long time. VON BRECK found it in his garden at Währing, near Vienna. The fungus has been described by WINTER.

At about the same time, the presence of *P. Galanthi* was reported in Hungary by LINHARD.

Fifteen years later, in 1897, BUBAK reported a new habitat of this fungus in Moravia and described the parasite.

Up to 1897, therefore, this fungus had been recorded in four distinct habitats; since that date there is no further record of its occurrence.

During an excursion made in May 1915, in the valley of the Danube the writer found no trace whatever of the fungus. A week later, in the same places, he found it in such quantities as to be able to make a collection. It was also noticed to occur on very young plants.

The distribution of the fungus shows clearly the existence of a zone of infection where the plants are very strongly attacked, while towards the periphery of the infected zone the fungus becomes gradually rare.

Research on the method of reproduction of *P. Galanthi* has shown that the spores occur on the under surface of the leaves.

As it forms no spots on the leaves it is extremely difficult to identify. Research on this point is being continued. From a systematic point of view it is noted that *P. Galanthi* closely resembles *P. Schroeteri* and that it attacks *Narcissus poeticus*.

Besides *P. Galanthi* another species of Uredineae is reported, *Puccinia Galanthi*, Schröt., which differs from the first by the paler colour of the spores. The teliospores develop on *Salix fragilis*. This species has already been reported from several places.

Both these rusts have been found repeatedly on the same localities; no genetic relation is thought to exist between them.

- 165 **Relation between the Concentration of Hydrogen Ions and the Natural Immunity of Plants.** — WAGNER J. in *Centralblatt für Bakteriologie, Abt. Parasitenkunde, nebst Zoonenheilkunde*, Vol. 41, No. 24-25, pp. 708-710, Jena, January 12, 1916.

The writer had previously noticed that the injection of phytopathogenic bacteria into certain plants, produced in their tissues, in addition to bactericidal substances, a variation in the concentration of the hydrogen ions.

Plants of *Sinapis alba*, *Brassica oleifera*, *Semperfervum Hassk.* and tubers of potatoes were inoculated with pure cultures of *Bacterium gatus* or of *Bac. phytophthorum*, or of *Pseudomonas campestris*. *Brassica* and *Semperfervum* were kept in an unheated glasshouse, *Solanum* and *Sinapis*

the open. The potato tubers were kept during the experiment in a place at a temperature varying between 22° and 30° C. Before injecting bacteria, the portion of the plant treated was washed in a 3% solution of hydrogen peroxide and well dried with alcohol. Some time after the injection, a sample of sap was taken from the plant and tested for its bactericidal power and for its acidity or the concentration of the hydrogen ions. The variations in the concentration of the ions are regarded as part of the reaction against the injection of the phytopathogenic bacteria. Immediately after the injection the acidity of the sap decreases, but increases again immediately the first symptoms of the disease appear. If after infection the plant is able to resist the disease, the concentration of the hydrogen ions decreases and after a certain time becomes the same as in healthy plants. When the plant is unable to withstand attack the concentration of the hydrogen ions augments greatly, subsequently falling below that of normal plants.

**Sugar canes Resistant to Root-rot and Maize Resistant to Insect Attacks, in Cuba.** See No. 366 of this Bulletin.

**Angular Leaf Spot of Cucumbers in America caused by *Bacterium lachrymans*.** — SMITH ERWIN F. and BRYAN MARY KATHERINE in *Phytopathological Journal*, Vol. V, No. 11, pp. 465-475, Pl. XI, XII, XIII, Washington, D. C. 1935.

The angular leaf spot of cucumbers (*Cucumis sativus*) has been known in the field for many years, but so far no organism has been named as its cause though it has generally been conceded to be of bacterial origin. C. F. BURGER, of Florida and G. B. TRAVERSO, in Italy (1), are responsible for most of the literature on the subject.

From the examination of material from a number of different sources, the writers have identified and described the organism responsible for the disease as *Bacterium lachrymans*.

The disease is characterised by angular brown spots which tear or drop out when dry, giving to the leaves a ragged appearance. Young stems and petioles may become soft-rotted or cracked open. In the early stages bacterial exudate collects in drops on the lower surface during the night and dries whitish. During the early stages bacteria have been isolated from this liquid. These are white in colour, very motile, 0.8 µ in width and 1.1 to 2 µ long, grouped in couples and more rarely united in chains consisting of as many as 12 individuals.

The optimum growth temperature lies between 25° and 27° C., exposure to direct sunlight is fatal in 95 per cent cases and exposure for a few minutes only to low temperatures kills 90 per cent. Inoculation experiments with *Bacterium lachrymans* on healthy plants give absolutely positive results.

The organism penetrates into the leaves through the stomata and takes up its position in the cavities beneath, spreads into the surrounding tissues, giving rise to the pathological symptoms already noticed.

This disease has already been recorded in the following parts of America: in Michigan at Big Rapids, Muskegon, Grand Haven, Holland and Big Rapids; in Indiana at Plymouth, Monterey, Tyner and Ellettsville; in Wisconsin at Racine, Portage, Ripon, Princeton and Milwaukee; in New York State at Constable, Malone, North Lawrence and Long Island; in Connecticut, in the district of Columbia, in Maryland and in the Southern States. In Canada the same disease is known in the provinces of Ontario and Quebec.

Considering the results obtained in the laboratory with copper sulphate, it would seem that Bordeaux mixture properly applied is the best remedy for this disease.

468 - **A Celery Fungus (*Septoria Petroselinii* var. *Apii*) New to Yorkshire**

ROSE, T. B. in *The Naturalist*, No. 708, pp. 14-15, London, 1916.

*Septoria Petroselinii* Desm. var. *Apii* Br. and Cav., injurious to celery, has just been recorded in the Scarborough district. This fungus is new to Yorkshire. Although previously known on the Continent and in N. America, the first authentic record of its appearance in England was in 1909, in Somersetshire. Since then it has caused much damage to celery both in England and Ireland.

In 1914, three quarters of a crop of 30,000 head of celery were lost through this disease alone. In 1915, though it did not make its appearance with the same severity, still the damage caused was considerable.

The disease is usually observed about the end of July or beginning of August after it has become well established.

As it has been proved that the "seed" has been known to contain fruits of the fungus, washings from which have been made by experiment to infect healthy plants, it would be advisable for growers to watch their young plants, and at the first sign of the disease to spray them with dilute Bordeaux mixture or potassium sulphide solution. As a precautionary measure, microscopical examination of samples of "seed" might be made, and if the fungus be detected thereon, washings in a fungicide might be tried, although it is possible that this would be little more than a palliative. Growers should promptly burn all diseased foliage. The practice of throwing diseased plants on to a rubbish heap is a great mistake as there is no doubt that the fungus can live through the winter and attack new plants the following year.

It is said that with many visitations like that of 1915, celery growing would become impracticable.

This disease should not be confounded with that caused by *Phyllactinia apii* Halsted, from which it is distinguished by the shape of the spores.

469 - ***Peronospora parasitica* and *Septoria Petroselinii* var. *Apii* Injurious to Broccoli and Celery in Latium.** - SEBASTIANELLI A. in *La Nuova Italia Agricola*, Year IV, No. 74, p. 20, Rome, Feb. 1, 1916.

*Peronospora parasitica* is very prevalent in the market gardens of Velletri, Cori, Cisterna etc. on the leaves of broccoli. Recently, the spread of

(1) See B. Oct. 1914, No. 457.

the disease has become so serious that in some gardens but very few plants escaped damage. Celery was very severely attacked by *Septoria Petroselinifolia* *Aph.*

**Diseases and Pests of the Cranberry, *Oxycoccus (Vaccinium) macrocarpus*, in the United States** — FRANKLIN H. J. in *Massachusetts Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 100, Report of Cranberry Substation for 1914*, pp. 54-117 (1915), MASS., 1915.

**Fungous diseases.** — These studies were carried on in cooperation with the Bureau of Plant Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture.

The "ring worm" trouble (commonly so called because it was formerly supposed to be the result of the work of some insect) was given some study. Plants die in a small patch at first and, the centre recovering, the whole area gradually becomes circular. These patches persist for years, the plants on the outer side of the rim dying every season, while recovery takes place on its inner side, the circle thus growing larger yearly unless stopped by ditch or some other obstruction. One grower has obtained good results by making 2 or 3 treatments in successive years with Bordeaux mixture.

The disease known as "false-blossom" hitherto only known in Wisconsin has been recorded for the first time in Massachusetts. The disease is evidently of a very serious character and very infectious.

The disease called "Blossom-end rot" is the chief cause of decay among "Late Howe" berries in storage. Its exact place in botanical classification is not yet determined.

As regards methods of treatment of fungoid diseases experiments have been continued with Bordeaux mixture on plots manured and unmanured. Records were kept of the crop yield obtained and its keeping qualities. The results were contradictory but, generally speaking, the treated plots gave heavier crops and smaller fruit than the control plots; spraying is therefore to be recommended except in the case of plantations which are exceptionally severely attacked.

Treatment with Bordeaux mixture (Dr SHEAR's formula) at the watering period caused a diminution in the crop yield of more than 1 per cent.

Attempts at treatment were also made by dissolving copper sulphate in the irrigation water (1 part in 50,000 parts of water). The yield was not affected.

The lack of success with the above treatments is probably due to their effect on the roots.

Sanding of the plantations did not appreciably increase the yield, but encouraged fungoid diseases and impaired the keeping qualities of the fruit.

**Insect pests (1).** — The army worm (*Heliophila unipuncta* Haworth)

<sup>1)</sup> See also B. Dec. 1915, No. 1361.

attacked plantations of *Vaccinium* at Cape Cod, but except in a few cases the damage caused was not serious.

The "gipsy moth" (*Porthetria dispar*) caused considerable damage to *Vaccinium* in several localities and is becoming more of a menace each year.

The "cranberry weevil" (*Lathronomus suturalis* Lec.) which usually harns a bog by working within the blossom buds and eating out the hearts, did much damage on some bogs in Plymouth in 1917, and caused some loss in the same locality this year.

Arsenical sprays ("Bordo" lead with Paris green) applied to the flowering period did good service.

The "spanworm" (*Eupetis truncataria* var. *faxonii* Minot) did some damage in a bog at Wareham. Several of the pupae were found to be parasitised by an Ichneumon new to science (*Campoplex variabilis*). Pupae were found after the bog had been submerged for five months.

The dying of the tips which has often been noticed at intervals is apparently attacks by the larvae of the "cranberry tip worm" (*Cecidomyia cava* Johnson).

Both eggs and larvae were found on the tips (as many as 5 on a one tip); the larvae form their cocoons in the soil. Flowed bogs, in case they have not been resanded before the 1st of May were, as a rule, much more seriously injured than were strictly dry bogs (without winter flowage). Flowed bogs which had been resanded the previous autumn or in the spring before the 1st of May were, as a rule, much less seriously injured than those not resanded. No bog showed great tip worm injury after a period of severe frosts. The "Late Howe" variety, as a rule, showed distinctly more injury than did the "Early Black".

For the control of the "flowed bog fireworm" (*Rhopobola ruficornis* Pack), in addition to the remedies already cited, the writer recommends treatment with sweetened arsenical sprays.

Nearly a dozen natural enemies of the "cranberry fruit-worm" have been identified and bred, only 3 are abundant enough to be of importance: a Braconid (*Phanerothoma tibialis* Hald), a species of Ichneumon (*Phaeogenesia agilis* Cress) Ashm; a Chalcidid (*Trichogramma minus* R&S).

- 471 ***Puccinia Iridis* on Cultivated *Iris*, New to Yorkshire.** - ROU T. B. in *The Naturalist*, No. 708, p. 27, London, 1916.

*Puccinia Iridis* Wallr. is recorded for the first time on cultivated *Iris* in some gardens at Scarborough.

- 472 **Apple Tree Mildew, *Podosphaera leucotricha* Salm. New to Yorkshire.** ROU T. B. in *The Naturalist*, No. 708, p. 27, London, Jan. 1916.

The above is a first record for Yorkshire of *Podosphaera leucotricha* Salm. The apples attacked were from trees at Ebbwston, near Scarborough and had suffered severely, being small in size and studded with perithecia of the fungus. The specimens found were in the ascigial or perfect stage which is apparently rare in England, the oidium or asexual stage being that usually met with.

13. "Sooty Blotch" of the Pear (*Leptothyrium carpophilum*) in England.  
SALMON E. S. and WORMEYD H. In *The Gardeners' Chronicle*, Vol. CLX, No. 1348, pp. 158-59, Figs. 25-28. London, Jan. 25, 1920.  
The writers have met with two instances where pears of the "Catilani" variety — in one case grown in a garden at Reigate, Surrey and in the other case at Wye, Kent — become severely attacked by the "Sooty Blotch". The disease is probably due to *Leptothyrium carpophilum*.  
The writer describes the points of difference between this latter organism and *Lept. Pomi* which causes the "sooty blotch of the apple".
14. *Sclerotinia Linhartiana* on Quince, New to Bulgaria. MARDENOV V. in *Travales SSSR na Bolgarska Zemledel'ska Prosvesh.*, Year XX, Vol. 1, pp. 106-107, Sofia, 1918.  
The disease of quince caused by *Sclerotinia Linhartiana* Prill et Del. (a conidial form of which is known by the name of *Monilia Linhartiana* Sacc.) has been reported for the first time in Bulgaria at Borisovgrad, Slatina (Plodvisko) Terovo, Rinstendit, and Giumingina. In damp weather the pest spreads with great rapidity and in a few days as high a proportion as  $\frac{1}{20}$  of the foliage may be affected. The fungus attacks the leaf near the petiole, spreads along the midrib and following the lateral veins, gradually covers the entire leaf.  
Irregular spots of a dirty-white colour appear on the surface of the leaf, these gradually conalesce and become covered with a whitish veil of mycelium and conidia of *Monilia*. These conidia, through insect agency gain access to the flowers and germinate, developing a branching mycelium which eventually reaches the ovary. The processes of fertilization, swelling and formation of the fruit are thus very materially affected, and when winter comes all the infected parts fall to the ground.  
In the spring, the apothecae of *Sclerotinia* develop on the fallen fruit and the ascospores which form attack in their turn the young growing leaves, thus spreading the disease over a still wider area.  
The following methods of control are advised:
- 1) Cutting off all infected parts and destroying by burning;
  - 2) Spraying with Bordeaux mixture before the leaves begin to bud, (a preventive measure);
  - 3) Dusting the diseased plants with calcium sulphate.

15. A Honeycomb Heart Rot of Oaks Caused by *Stereum subpileatum*.  
LONG WILLIAM H. in *Journal of Agricultural Research*, Vol. 3, No. 10, pp. 321-325, Pl. XI, Washington, D. C., 1918.  
During investigations made in 1912, 1913 and 1914 on the pathological condition of the oak (*Quercus* spp.) in the National Forests of Arkansas and other sections of the United States, the writer found a large percentage of the trees, especially in some regions of Arkansas, attacked by various species of heart rotting fungi. Among these were *Polyporus foveatus*, *P. berkeleyi*, *P. frondosus* and *P. dryophilus*. In addition to the foregoing a new type of rot was found caused by *Stereum subpileatum*.  
In the final stage of this rot the diseased wood resembles a piece of honeycomb, hence the name.

So far, this rot has been observed, in Arkansas, on *Quercus alba*, *Q. lyrata*, *Q. palustris*, *Q. phellos*, *Q. rubra*, *Q. texana*, *Q. velutina*; in Florida, on *Q. virginiana*, *Quercus* sp. and *Liquid-ambar styraciflua*; in Kentucky, on *Quercus* sp. (?); in Louisiana, on *Q. lyrata*; in Mississippi, on *Q. bicolor*; in Missouri, on *Q. palustris* (?); in Virginia, on *Q. alba*, *Q. coccinea*, *Q. prinus* and *Q. velutina*; in Mexico on *Quercus* (?).

The only practicable method of control which can be applied to the forest as a whole is to prevent, so far as possible, the infection of the trees. This can be done: 1) by eliminating all forest fires, since they produce wounds on the butts of trees through which the fungus enters; 2) by preventing the formation of the fruiting bodies (sporophores) of the fungus which produce the spores. This can be done by destroying all diseased timber which contains this rot.

### INJURIOUS INSECTS AND OTHER LOWER ANIMALS.

- 476 - **The Psyllidae of the Cleveland (England).** - HARRISON, J. W. H. in *The Annals of Entomology and Natural History*, No. 707, pp. 300-301, London, 1915.

The following is a list of some of the Psyllids found on useful plants over a limited section of the Cleveland area:

*Aphalara calthae* Linn. on larch and spruce; *Psyllopsis fraxinicola* Först. on *P. fraxini* Linn. and *Psylla pyricola* on ash; *Psylla salicicola* Först. on *P. ambigua* Först. on willow; *Psylla hartigii* Flor., on birch; *P. pineti* Flor. on conifers; *P. melanoneura* Först. on oaks and conifers; *P. costalis* Flor. on blackthorn, hawthorn, mountain ash, oak, etc.; *P. peregrina* Först. on hawthorn; *P. mali* Schm., on crab apple; *P. alni* Linn. at *P. forsteri* Flor. on alder; *Trioxa urticae* Linn. on elm, blackthorn etc.; *T. albiventris* Först. on willow and silver fir.

- 477 - **The Asparagus Beetle Egg Parasite.** - ROSS, W. A. in *The Agricultural Gazette of Canada*, Vol. 2, No. 11, pp. 1055-1056, 4 Figs. Ottawa, 1915.

Early in the month of June, 1915, large numbers of a minute, dark blue-green, four-winged chalcid fly were found destroying the eggs of the Asparagus beetle, *Crioceris asparagi* L., at Vineland Station, Ontario.

The female, by means of a sharp ovipositor, pierces the egg of the Asparagus beetle and deposits within it her own eggs (three to nine in number). In due course the beetle egg, its viability unaffected, hatches and the grub grows to maturity.

The larvae of *Crioceris* resist for some time, and reach the pupal stage but they are then killed. The adult chalcid is a voracious feeder on the eggs, accounting for as many as 90 per cent. At the Vineland Station Experimental Farm the work of the egg parasite was so effective that it was found possible to dispense with the customary spraying of the asparagus plants.

- 478 - **Appearance of Swarms of *Contarinia tritici* in South Russia during 1914.** - BORODINE D. N. in *Khokhlovskii*, No. 13-14, pp. 1027-1029, Kiev, 1915.

Russian entomology makes but rare mention of *Contarinia tritici* Kirby. Amongst the few who have treated the subject is quoted N. M. K.

gent, who wrote, in 1913, that in Russia not much harm was done to wheat by this member of the Diptera. Two years later, however, the pest appeared in swarms in the two South Russian provinces of Poltava and Kherson, especially in the former. Observations made by the writer himself and communications received from correspondents of the Entomological Department of the provincial Zemstvo of Poltava have shown that the fruit insects made their appearance between May 9 and 20 (old style). The writer, however, believes that period to have been a good deal longer.

Oviposition took place over the whole of the time and about June 12 the numbers of the larvae were hatched and continued to appear up till the end of the time. Their number then greatly diminished, especially after the first rain. The descent of the larvae to the soil to pupate occurred towards the 20, when rain began to fall and the number of larvae on the ears rapidly diminished; finally they quite disappeared. After the disappearance of the larvae from the wheat harvested in the fields of the Experimental Agricultural Station of Poltava, a careful search was made for them in the soil beneath the sheaves, but with no result. A number of larvae of *G. tritici* were put into small glass tubes during the months of June and July 1914. Although the conditions were most unfavourable owing to the fact that the boxes in which the tubes were placed not having been watered since the spring of 1913, and watering only being carried out in the middle of May, between June 2 and 8 a number of parasites were bred from the larvae and identified by N. W. Kormormow as *Gentocercus cornutus* Nees (8 specimens), *G. clavicornis* Thomas (3 specimens), *G. tritici* sp. (1 specimen).

In order to ascertain the amount of damage caused by *Gent. tritici* the number of larvae and cocoons on each ear were counted, and also the number of injured grains. The percentage of the injured grains was calculated on the total number of grains contained in a 100 ears of corn. Usually the proportion of ears attacked was 80.00 per cent. The proportion of damaged grains 10.00 per cent.

In the following table are given the results of 7 examinations:

| Species of insect attacked | Date of sowing | Date of examination | Number of ears | Total number of grains | Number of injured grains | Percentage |
|----------------------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------|
| Young wheat                | —              | June 11 13          | 100            | 2 106                  | 212                      | 10.016     |
|                            | August 5       | " 27                | 100            | 2 736                  | 267                      | 9.75       |
| "                          | " 13           | " 27                | 100            | 2 298                  | 141                      | 6.20       |
| "                          | " 25           | " 28                | 100            | 2 354                  | 26                       | 1.09       |
| "                          | September 5    | " 30                | 100            | 2 621                  | 19                       | 0.72       |
| Young rye                  | —              | " 16                | 100            | 3 860                  | 175                      | 4.49       |
| Young wheat                | —              | " 20                | 93             | 1 386                  | 212                      | 15.2       |



The amount of damage caused is correlated with the time of sowing for, as may be seen by examinations 2, 3, 4, and 6, the early sowings are most severely attacked, a fact which is probably connected with the sowing period of *Contarinia*. Comparing the damage caused to with other insects the most serious is that caused by *Contarinia*, and the conclusion of entomologists is drawn to the fact that the insect in question caused in North America damages assessed at some millions of dollars.

179. **The Influence of Rainfall and the Non Burning of Trash on the Abundance of *Diatraea saccharalis*, Injurious to the Sugar Cane** (1). — Wotcorff, *in* *Govt. of Porto Rico, Board of Commissioners of Agriculture, Insular Experiment Station, Rto. Piedras, P. R., Circular No. 7*, pp. 1-6, 1 diagram, San Juan, Porto Rico, 1912.

The most important insect injurious to sugar cane in the West Indian Hemisphere is the smaller stalk-borer, *Diatraea saccharalis* Fabr. which occurs in abundance in the southern United States, Mexico, Cuba, Guaymeca, Santo Domingo, Porto Rico, St. Kitts, Barbados, Trinidad, Demerara and Argentina, besides other islands and countries of lesser importance in sugar production.

The extent of the damage caused by this insect varies in different localities and between very wide limits. As a result of numerous sowings and researches, the writer has been able to fix the following points:

- 1) There is an inverse relationship between the total annual rainfall and the abundance of *Diatraea*.
- 2) The burning of trash on the field after the cane is harvested kills large numbers of *Trichogramma minutum* Riley, the most effective enemy of *Diatraea*, and consequently favours the development of this larva. This is found to be true for all localities and the burning of trash is therefore to be discouraged.

It is particularly important to draw the attention of planters to this fact, as one of the most common methods used for the control of insects is precisely that of burning the trash on the fields.

*Diatraea* is not abundant in Jamaica, but there is a noticeable difference between the north and south sides. On the south side, *Diatraea* infests 15 to 30 per cent of the stalks. The difference is due to the amount of rainfall, the total precipitation being much higher in the north where the insects are scarce.

In Barbados the scarcity of rain favours the development of the pest and the presence of *Trichogramma* act as a sufficient check.

In Cuba, in the sugarcane districts of Havana, Matanzas and San Clara, where the annual rainfall averages from over 50 inches to over 90 inches, *Diatraea* attacks about 10 per cent of the canes. In Camaguey and Oriente provinces where the annual rainfall is from 30 to 50 inches the infestation by the borer is 40 per cent.

(1) See also B. Oct. 1915, No. 1206.

The following table gives data relating to Porto-Rico:

| Locality      | Index of<br>rainfall<br>1914 | Percentage of infestation 1914-15 |                                     |   |
|---------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|
|               |                              | Average<br>of all<br>fields       | Fields where<br>trash was<br>burned | Fields where<br>trash was<br>not burned |
| San Juan      | 104                          | 0 (8)                             | 0                                   | 0 (8)                                   |
| Ponce         | 95                           | 5 (6)                             | 0                                   | 8 (6)                                   |
| San Francisco | *70                          | 11 (13)                           | 13 (6)                              | 9 (9)                                   |
| Manzanillo    | 72                           | 0 (6)                             | 10 (3)                              | 1 (6)                                   |
| Caracas       | 70                           | 11 (9)                            | 0                                   | 11 (4)                                  |
| La Bala       | 70                           | 15 (8)                            | 10 (4)                              | 10 (4)                                  |
| S. Pedres     | 66                           | 17 (7)                            | 0                                   | 17 (7)                                  |
| San Juan      | 66                           | 30 (9)                            | 41 (8)                              | 26 (4)                                  |
| San Juan      | 58                           | 6 (5)                             | 0                                   | 6 (5)                                   |
| San Juan      | 58                           | 17 (5)                            | 60 (2)                              | 22 (3)                                  |
| Medina        | 55                           | 26 (16)                           | 60 (1)                              | 24 (18)                                 |
| San Juan      | 49                           | 32 (9)                            | 31 (8)                              | 18 (1)                                  |
| San Juan-José | 45                           | 17 (4)                            | 4 (4)                               | 0                                       |
| Aguirre       | 34                           | 15 (6)                            | 50 (5)                              | 31 (2)                                  |
| Porto Rico    | 27                           | 37 (6)                            | 41 (9)                              | 23 (3)                                  |
| San Juan      | 25                           | 48 (8)                            | 48 (8)                              | 0                                       |
| San Juan      | 23                           | 94 (5)                            | 77 (6)                              | 11 (2)                                  |
| San Juan      | 24                           | 76 (5)                            | 76 (4)                              | 0                                       |
| San Juan      | 22                           | 2 (4)                             | 78 (3)                              | 16 (6)                                  |
| San Juan      | 21                           | 66 (8)                            | 68 (3)                              | 31 (6)                                  |

\* Average of rainfall of *San Juan*, not of the town. Figures in brackets after per centages indicate lots of fields examined.

The eggs of *Diatraea* are deposited on the leaves of the cane, and when the young larvae hatch a considerable interval elapses while they crawl about on the cane before they enter the stalk, or midrib of the leaf. A heavy fall of rain during this period would wash them on to the ground, where they would fall an easy prey to natural enemies, especially *Solenopsis geminata* ("hormiga brava").

(2) *Phlyctaenodes sticticalis*, Micro lepidopteron. Injurious to Tobacco in Roumania (1). — KNECHTEL WILHELM R. in *Phytophaga Central et Rheni Monographica Scandinavica*, Bulletin, Year III, Part II, IV, pp. 24-26, Figs. 1, 2, 3, 4, Bucharest, 1912.

During 1915, *Phlyctaenodes sticticalis* has been found attacking tobacco in the east of Roumania. It had been previously recorded (1900) and identified as injurious to field crops, particularly tobacco.

(1) See *R. Jan.* 1915 No. 124.

The larvae have been reported from various parts of Eastern Rumania and of Northern Dobruia, especially from the province of Tulcea, where they appeared on July 4 in the commune of Cretet; in this latter place fifteen plantations were attacked, two being completely destroyed. They were also observed in the provinces of Pripoteni, Ialova (communes of Glidigneni and Carlomanesti), Solesti Vaslui, Iasi, Vaslui (communes of Lipovat, Deleni, Munteni, Nanjesti) Macin, Tulcea and Badadag Tulcea. They are commonly known as "Omida Rasnita".

The tobacco-leaves are attacked at the margins and gradually die, until only the skeleton remains. Damp and rainy weather favours the development and spread of the insect, whose attacks coincide with the rainy seasons. Among the natural enemies of *Ph. sticticalis* is a ladybird, *Mikroklossia prima*, already recorded by KRASSILTSCHIK. As a means of control, the direct destruction of the larvae and the isolation of infested centres are recommended; also spraying with insecticides, disinfection of the soil, and burning of all vegetable refuse and of any other infected matter.

181. **The Pavement Ant (*Tetramorium cespitum*) as a Pest of Coldframe and Greenhouse Crops in Virginia** (1), by SMITH LOREN B. in *Virginia Truck and Garden Station, Bulletin*, 19, pp. 353-365, Figs. 72-83, Norfolk, Virginia, 1915.

During the past two years, horticulturists in the Norfolk region have been suffering losses from the attacks of the pavement ant. This ant is a native of Europe and was introduced into America probably 150 or 200 years ago. Since that time it has become quite widely distributed throughout the Eastern United States; it is only recently, however, that it has been reported as injurious to vegetable crops.

Two species occur in the above region which might be confused with the pavement ant: the red ant (*Monomorium pharaonis* L.) and the black ant (*Monomorium minimum* Mayr.). These can be distinguished by their smaller size and difference in colouration.

*T. cespitum* has been observed to feed on the following vegetables: kohlrabi, cauliflower, cabbage, eggplant, Brussels sprouts, pepper, tomato, radish, parsley and lettuce. The attacks occur on the roots, crown and lower portion of the stem and have been found to be more severe during the spring, autumn and winter seasons.

Where the nests are accessible, fumigation with carbon bisulphide has proved the more efficient method of control. If the nest occurs on the surface of the ground, place a saucer containing a few ounces of the fumigant on the ground over the nest and cover the whole with several thicknesses of heavy canvas. Allow the fumigation to continue for at least 24 hours. If the nest is underground, push swabs of absorbent cotton soaked in the fumigant down into the nest, firmly packing the soil over them.

In case these methods cannot be applied, poison baits may be used (Paris green and bran, or potassium arsenate mixed with orange pulp).

(1) See also *B. Jan.*, 1916 No. 134.

ing the ants with hot water is also an advantageous method and fish scrap fertiliser may be found to have some value as a repellent.

52) **Staphylinid Injurious to Turnips in France.** VINCENT in *Comptes rendus des séances de l'Académie d'Agriculture de France*, Vol. II, No. 1, pp. 87-88, Paris, January 29, 1916.

In the localities of the Department of Finistère where turnips are closely cultivated, circular zones may often be observed where the crop is thin and irregular. Some of the plants wither and quickly die off, others are dwarfed and weedy. The leaves and tap root do not show any traces of fungoid disease, but on examining the surrounding soil numerous larvae will be seen which attack and devour the roots.

The larvae are from 3 to 4 mm. long; body creamy white, head black. The black adults bred from the larvae in the laboratory were identified as belonging to the family of the Staphylinidae. This insect is very sensitive to insecticides. Good results were obtained with toluene and still better ones with benzene in the proportion of 8.8 gallons per acre.

However, it would probably be more economical to give up the crop at any rate to adopt a rotation.

53) ***Tinea cloacella*, Injurious to Dried Edible Mushrooms.** KRAUSE ANDER in *Zeitschrift für Forst- und Jagdwissenschaften*, Year 45, No. 2, pp. 13-18, Berlin, February 1916.

On March 22, 1915, the writer received from Eberswalde (Germany) a quantity of dried mushrooms which had been attacked by larvae of different ages.

The first adult insect emerged on April 9, and was identified as *Tinea cloacella*. Most of the adults, however, did not appear till May.

The first mating was observed on May 16. During the mating period, the phototropism of the insects was more strongly positive than usual.

The eggs were always deposited singly on the mushrooms. The writer confined a number of males and females in a cage, together with small bits of mushroom; eight days after, in addition to the eggs, there were a number of young larvae about 1 mm. in length.

It is interesting to note that the insect requires very little water for its development and that many larvae die before pupating, in the same way many others do not survive the pupal stage.

The completely developed larvae are 9 mm. long, the pupae about 5 mm. The bodies of the former are covered with excrescences which resemble closely the hairs characteristic of Lepidopterous larvae. This is a point which should prove interesting from the systematic point of view.

As dried mushrooms become worthless when attacked by *Tinea cloacella*, it is advisable to examine them from time to time, removing all those attacked by the Lepidopteron.

54) **The "Fruit fly" (*Ceratitis capitata*) Injurious to Citrus in Greece (1).** PAPAGEORGIOU P. in *Deltonia Vasilikis Istorikis Heterias*, Year VII, No. 12, pp. 288-290, Fig. 1, Athens, 1916.

*Ceratitis capitata* caused considerable damage in 1915 among Citrus trees in Attica and Epirus. The fruit of lemons, oranges and mandarins

(1) See B. Sept. 1915 No. 993.

(Ld.).

attacked by this insect are unsaleable and often drop to the ground at the slightest breath of wind.

The following means of control are advised :

- 1) All tainted fruit to be collected and treated with lime, as above ; the larvae and presents the development of subsequent generations ;
- 2) Tin cans containing sweetened poisonous substances to be hung round the plantations to every 20 th. tree ; good results were obtained by a 1 per cent solution of arsenate of soda added to grape syrup ; the Diptera, which round the cans and, absorbing the liquid, are killed in great numbers.

485 **The Bagworm (*Thyridopteryx ephemerae-formis*), an Injurious Shade-Tree Insect.** HOWARD J. O. and CHITTENDEN F. H. in *United States Department of Agriculture, Farmer's Bulletin*, No. 794, pp. 1-11, Figs. 1-14. Washington, Jan. 15, 1916.

*Thyridopteryx ephemerae formis* (" Bagworm " or " Basketworm ") has recently caused considerable damage in the States of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois.

The larvae of this lepidopteron construct themselves a sort of bag, with the aid of fragments of leaves cut from trees and held together by means of silk. The anterior portion of the body of the larva remains inside and the animal crawls about on the branches and devours the leaves of a large number of plants. Practically all shade trees are attacked and in some years the larvae are found on nearly every species of orchard forest tree also. They also occur on willows, maples, poplars and mulberries and less frequently on elms and oaks. They even feed to a certain extent on many low-growing semiwoody plants, such as elder, mallow and ligustrum.

Among the natural enemies of this insect are : (*Pimpla*) *Hoplistus* *conquisitor* Say ; (*Pimpla*) *P. conquisitor* Say ; (*Helmitides*) *Alloceuthyris* *viridis* Riley ; *Spilochalcis moriae* Riley ; *Chalcis ovata* Say ; *Dibrachys* *cheanusi* Ratz and *Habrocytus thyridopterigis* Ashm.

The following methods of treatment are advised :

- 1) Where possible, collect the larvae and destroy them directly.
- 2) Encourage the development and reproduction of the natural enemies.
- 3) Spray with arsenicals.

## INJURIOUS VERTEBRATES.

486 **Comparative Experiments in Austria on the Control of Field Voles** (in German) by ARK. FUSZ in *Wiener Landwirtschaftliche Zeitung*, Year 66, No. 8, pp. 26-27. Vienna, January 15, 1916.

An account of experiments carried out at the initiative of the Government section of the " Landes-Kulturrat " of Bohemia, from March to May 1915 on the control of field voles making use of various methods. The 1915 spring weather which was favourable to the reproduction of these rodents

(1) See *B.* Jan. 1915 No. 132 ; and *B.* Feb. 1916 No. 264.

was also suitable for conducting the experiments. The plots of ground chosen for the purpose of the experiment were sown with clover except in a few cases where rye was used. Ditches, banks, etc. were also included.

The average number of holes counted in the fields was 5 per square meter and varied from 1 to 10. The fields were invaded to such an extent that all the plants around the holes had been destroyed for a distance of 15 cm. Three or four days before the experiment, the holes were all closed by stamping in the earth. Only those holes which the voles re-opened were used for the experiment.

The results were as follows:

1) PILLS CONTAINING 20% OF BARIUM CARBONATE. — Five pills each weighing 0.5 gms. were placed in a hole, or between two tiles placed in the open field. During March, 40 holes and 8 pairs of tiles were treated. The pills placed in the holes gave positive results in 70% of the cases. The pills placed in the open, between the tiles, gave negative results.

2) PHOSPHORUS PILLS. — Four pills weighing 1-1.5 gms. each were placed in each hole. The experiments were carried out during March on 44 holes with two types of pills. The first type gave positive results in 25 per cent of the cases, and the second type positive results in 28 per cent. The same experiments repeated in May gave negative results throughout.

3) PHOSPHORUS PASTE. — Straw was smeared with the paste and placed in the holes. When the voles left their holes some of the paste adhered to their bodies, the rodents then licked themselves and were poisoned. Thirty holes were treated in this way and left open during the whole period of experiment. The voles were usually poisoned after 3 days. The experiments conducted both in March and May gave positive results in 72 cases per cent.

4) ARSENICAL PASTE. — This mixture was composed of arsenious acid, caustic soda, potato meal, water and molasses.

It was employed in the same manner as in the preceding experiments. Thirty holes were treated and both in March and May, 50 cases per cent gave positive results.

5) GRAINS OF WHEAT POISONED WITH STRYCHNINE. — The grains were soaked for 45 hours in a strychnine solution containing 4 gms. of poison (nitrate) per kg. of wheat.

The grain was then sweetened with saccharose or saccharine; 1 gm. of calcium bicarbonate was then added to the mixture with some fuchsin to restore the grains to their normal colour. The grains were then put into the holes.

Forty holes were thus treated. The experiments made in March gave positive results in 87 cases per cent; those carried out in May gave similar results only in 7 cases per cent.

6) OAT GRAINS POISONED WITH STRYCHNINE. — The husks were first removed from the grains and these latter then treated like the wheat. The experiment was made on 40 holes. In March, good results were obtained in 92 cases per cent; in May, only in 7 cases per cent.

7) MORPHINE PILLS. — Five pills were placed in each hole which

was then closed. Part of the pills were put out when the weather was dry, and part when it was wet. In the first case good results were obtained, in the second they were negative.

8) POISONED BISCUITS. — The poisoned biscuits placed in the holes were not eaten.

9) CARBON DISULPHIDE. — This was injected into the holes by means of a special apparatus. The result was satisfactory whenever the hole was well filled by the gas. Carbon disulphide is, however, difficult to employ.

10) SULPHUR DIOXIDE. — This was introduced into the holes by means of special cartridges invented by the writer.

Finally, experiments were made with traps.

*Conclusions.* — 1) The results obtained by the different methods depend upon a number of factors, such as : the season in which the campaign is conducted, the nature of the soil ; the number of voles in the field, etc. ;

2) During the winter and in early spring, when food is scarce the best method is that with poisoned grain and particularly the oat-grain treated with strychnine ;

3) Pastes also gave good results, especially the arsenical paste, which has the advantage of being adapted for use in all seasons ;

4) Of the pills, those containing morphine gave the best results.

5) In April and October when the soil is well stocked with food, the employment of gases is advisable.

6) For destroying voles in ditches or banks, etc. the best medium is sulphur dioxide.

487 - *Plague of Field-Voles in the Province of Kieff during 1914.* — CHARLEMANS in *Khosiaistwo (The Farm)*, No. 45-46, pp. 1058-1059. Kiev, 1915.

In 1914, many provinces of South Russia were very seriously invaded by field voles, while in the spring of the following year the number of the rodents was greatly diminished ; in fact, in some places they had entirely disappeared. In the autumn, when it was possible to form a judgment, from the number of holes, of the extent of the attack, it was so that this number was not above the normal. The cause of the rapid disappearance of the animals is attributed to weather conditions. The spring of 1915 was a very changeable one. Up till February, the weather was very mild and the snow melted almost everywhere ; in the latter half of the month, however, the cold returned, snow fell once more and the water froze in the fields. This sudden return of winter must have had bad effects on the voles.

After the spring in question, *Microtus arvalis* Pall. disappeared almost completely from the province of Kieff ; *Eutamias glareolus* Schreb. was very rarely, and the number of *Arvicola amphibius* L. markedly diminished. The number of other species of rodents also decreased.

In connection with this decrease, the opinion is quoted of K. A. JENNINE who, when speaking of the distributional centres of voles, says that the problem of the control of voles is confined to the discovery and destruction of such centres during the years in which their numbers are observed to be less.

According to some writers, the vole plagues occur approximately every ten years. If this is admitted, the above advice may well be borne in mind.